United Nations A/65/208

General Assembly

Distr.: General
2 August 2010

Original: English

Sixty-fifth session
Item 28 of the provisional agenda*
Advancement of women

Intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women

Report of the Secretary-General

Summary

In resolution 63/155 on intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women, the General Assembly reaffirmed the obligation of all States to promote and protect all human rights and fundamental freedoms, and recognized that violence against women was rooted in unequal power relations between men and women and that all forms of violence against women constituted a major impediment to the ability of women to make use of their capabilities. The Assembly requested the Secretary-General to submit to it, at its sixty-fifth session, a report with information provided by States on their follow-up activities to implement the resolution. The present report is submitted pursuant to that request. The report is divided into four parts: section I contains the introduction; section II covers the background; section III outlines the measures reported by Member States; and section IV contains the conclusions and recommendations.

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I. Introduction

1. In its resolution 63/155 of 18 December 2008 on intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women, the General Assembly urged States to end impunity for violence against women, and to continue to develop their national strategy and a more systematic, comprehensive, multisectoral and sustained approach in the fields of legislation, prevention, law enforcement, victim assistance and rehabilitation. The present report is submitted in accordance with the Assembly's request, in that resolution, and is based on information received from Member States. It covers the period since the last report (A/63/214 and Corr.1) up to 27 May 2010.

II. Background

2. The General Assembly has dealt with the issue of violence against women for a number of years. In recalling all its previous resolutions on the elimination of violence against women, the Assembly was concerned in 2008 about the pervasiveness of violence against women and girls in all its different forms and manifestations worldwide, noting that such violence seriously impaired or nullified women's enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms, constituting a major impediment to the ability of women to make use of their capabilities. The Assembly also recognized that, conversely, women's poverty, lack of empowerment and marginalization placed them at increased risk of violence.

3. To protect women from such violence and break the cycle of violence, the General Assembly, in resolution 63/155, strongly condemned all acts of violence against women and girls, whether perpetrated by the State, private persons or non-State actors (para. 8); stressed that it was important that States refrained from invoking any custom, tradition or religious consideration to avoid their obligations with respect to elimination of violence against women (para. 9); stressed also that States must exercise due diligence to prevent, investigate, prosecute and punish the perpetrators of violence against women and girls and to provide protection to the victims (para. 10); and urged States to end impunity for violence against women by ensuring that women had equal protection of the law and equal access to justice (para. 11).

4. The General Assembly then put forward in the same resolution specific measures to be undertaken by States to end such violence, including, inter alia: improvements of legal framework, including the prohibition of sexual violence from amnesty provisions (para. 13); protecting and assisting victims, and investigating and punishing violence against women (para. 11); development of national strategies (para. 16); partnerships with civil society (para. 16 (t)); empowerment of women and awareness-raising among women of their rights (para. 15); training of all officials responsible for implementing policies and programmes aimed at preventing violence against women (para. 14); assistance to victims (para. 16 (m), (p) and (q)); data collection and monitoring (para. 16 (e)); and resource allocation (para. 16 (g) and (h)). The Assembly also called upon the entities of the United Nations system to intensify their efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls and to better coordinate their work (para. 21).

5. Based on inputs received from Member States in response to a note verbale, the present report summarizes measures taken by States to address violence against women in relation to (a) international instruments, legislation and the criminal justice system (addressing in particular resolution 63/155, paras. 11, 12, 13, 16 (b), (c), (d), (k), (l) and (m) and 18)); (b) national action plans, strategies and national coordination mechanisms and collaboration (in particular para. 16 (a), (f), (g), (j), (n), (q) and (t)); (c) prevention measures, including awareness-raising and capacity-building (in particular paras. 14, 15, 16 (b), (h), (i), (j), (o) and (s)); (d) protection, support and services for victims/survivors (in particular paras. 15, 16 (l), (m), (p), (q) and (r)); and (e) data collection and analysis (in particular para. 16 (e)).

III. Measures reported by Member States

6. As of 27 May 2010, 54 Member States had responded to the Secretary-General's request for information relating to the implementation of General Assembly resolution 63/155.[1] Information was provided on a range of measures taken to address violence against women, including strengthening legal frameworks, adopting dedicated policies, reinforcing prevention action and efforts to prosecute perpetrators and protect and support victims.

A. International instruments, legislation and the criminal justice system

7. The international legal framework obligates and guides States in the adoption of their own laws to address violence against women. Member States drew attention to their adherence to a range of international instruments, including the international human rights treaties, in particular the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, and the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court. The suffering of women living under situations of occupation and the importance of respecting international humanitarian and human rights law in that context were also raised. Many States indicated their adherence to relevant regional instruments, such as the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa. Some States made reference to work under way in the Council of Europe on drafting a convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence.

8. Legislation provides the foundation for a holistic and effective approach to addressing violence against women. Many States have strengthened their national legal frameworks to prevent and address violence against women. However, lack of full and effective enforcement of the law remains a continuing challenge. An

[1] Argentina, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Belarus, Belgium, Belize, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Cameroon, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Djibouti, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Finland, France, Georgia, Iceland, Indonesia, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Kenya, Lebanon, Lithuania, Mauritius, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Paraguay, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Republic of the Congo, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Samoa, Senegal, Serbia, Slovak Republic, Spain, Sudan, Sweden, Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, Turkmenistan, Uganda, Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) and Yemen.

increasing number of legal frameworks acknowledge violence against women as a form of gender-based discrimination and a violation of women's human rights. The right to a life free of violence has been incorporated in some constitutions, such as in the Constitution of Ecuador (article 66 (3)), which was revised in 2008. A noteworthy trend has been an increase in the adoption of comprehensive laws, which not only criminalize violence against women and call for the prosecution and punishment of perpetrators, but also include measures related to the prevention of violence, the support and protection of victims/survivors, and implementation of the law (Argentina, Colombia, Georgia, Paraguay, Portugal, Spain and Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)). Other States have separate laws or legal provisions to protect and assist victims, covering, for example, compensation for damages (Austria and Switzerland) and support and services (Bulgaria, Japan, Norway, Philippines, Slovakia and Sweden), as well as to mandate prevention measures, such as education on the prevention of violence against women in schools and public awareness-raising measures on domestic violence (Republic of Korea and Serbia). Some of these laws address multiple forms of violence, while others focus on one form of violence, such as domestic violence.

9. Member States have amended their penal codes and/or adopted other laws to address violence against women. Definitions of violence against women have been expanded. For example, in many laws, definitions of domestic violence include physical, sexual, psychological and other types of violence, and extend to violence committed within relationships other than marriage (Bulgaria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Chile, Georgia, Paraguay, Portugal and Switzerland). The definition of rape has been broadened in several countries, to include a greater range of constitutive acts, focusing also on consent rather than physical force; and applicable penalties increased (Bulgaria, Chile, Mauritius, Portugal and Senegal). A growing number of States are criminalizing marital rape (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Chile and Cyprus). Sentences and fines have been increased in relation to domestic violence (Cyprus, Mauritius, Norway and Tunisia), and aggravating circumstances have been introduced, such as the witnessing of violence by minors (Norway), and the victim's age and violence resulting in death of the victim (Portugal). Laws or special provisions have been increasingly adopted on sexual harassment (Bulgaria, Chile, China, Ecuador, Finland, Georgia, Mauritius, Portugal and Tunisia), some of which prohibit it not only in workplaces but also in educational institutions and other areas of public activity. An emerging trend is the adoption of legislation to specifically criminalize stalking (Italy). Several States have amended or are in the process of amending discriminatory provisions in criminal or personal status laws in relation to adultery, rape and polygamy (Iraq, Lebanon and Tunisia). States have incorporated provisions related to the protection of women from violence in laws on gender equality or equal rights (Bosnia and Herzegovina and Philippines), protection of women in general (China) and crime prevention (Belarus). Some new or amended laws have focused on the protection of children from sexual violence and abuse (China, Portugal and Sweden). Efforts are under way in several States to elaborate and/or adopt laws to address violence against women (Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Belize, Cameroon, Italy, Iraq, Kenya, Lebanon, Lithuania, Paraguay and Russian Federation) or the protection of children from violence (Syrian Arab Republic).

10. Civil protection orders, which provide for the removal of perpetrators from a joint place of residence in cases of domestic violence, and the imposition of restrictions upon their behaviour, are available or are under way in an increasing

number of States (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Chile, China, Cyprus, France, Georgia, Japan, Mauritius, Netherlands, Portugal, Serbia, Spain and Switzerland). Some States have strengthened the remedy of protection orders, including by expanding the period of time covered by the order (Austria); extending the application beyond married couples (France) and to cases of child abuse (Netherlands) and stalking (Austria and Italy); and extending the right to apply for a protection order to persons other than the victim/survivor (Austria and Bulgaria). The Netherlands reported that approximately 2,100 temporary restraining orders against perpetrators of domestic violence were imposed in 2009. A special centre registering protection orders was established in Chile, and in Finland instructions have been elaborated to strengthen police procedures related to protection orders.

11. A noteworthy trend has been the adoption of legislation regarding harmful practices. A number of States have adopted or are in the process of adopting such legislation, including in relation to female genital mutilation/cutting (Cameroon, Djibouti, Iceland and Norway), early and forced marriage (Bulgaria and Norway), and demand for dowry (Cameroon). The Syrian Arab Republic repealed the defence for so-called "honour" crimes from its criminal code, while Iceland increased penalties for aggravating circumstances in respect of female genital mutilation/cutting. Legislation on harmful practices, particularly with regard to female genital mutilation/cutting, may create extraterritorial jurisdiction, in the light of the fact that these forms of violence may be committed across borders.

12. States have adopted or amended criminal procedure codes or related laws to better protect and assist victims/survivors of violence during legal proceedings. Such measures include the possibility to be heard by an official of the same sex in all stages of proceedings (Switzerland); the provision of legal and psychological assistance (Austria, Dominican Republic, Kenya, Mauritius, Norway, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Spain and Sweden); the availability of information to victims/survivors related to the progress of their cases and their rights to damages and the obtaining of a protection order (Iceland, Georgia, Norway and Sweden); the removal of the perpetrator from court during the testimony of the victim and the exclusion of the public from court (Iceland); speedy judicial procedures (Portugal); special measures to support victims in giving evidence (Canada, Cyprus, Sweden and Switzerland); and the participation of non-governmental organizations in judicial proceedings as a civil party (Djibouti). The lack of free legal aid for women victims of violence was identified as a particular barrier in some States to the victim's/survivor's access to justice.

13. In order to enhance the capacity of law enforcement officials to deal with violence against women and effectively implement the laws, training programmes were carried out for police, prosecutors, judges, lawyers and security forces in many countries (Australia, Bahrain, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Cameroon, China, Colombia, Congo, Dominican Republic, Finland, France, Iceland, Kenya, Lebanon, Lithuania, Mexico, Norway, Paraguay, Philippines, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Senegal, Serbia, Slovakia, Spain, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic and Uganda). Such initiatives were often carried out in cooperation with civil society and included a focus on investigation and prosecution of perpetrators, and enhancing knowledge of the causes and consequences of violence against women, national legislation and international standards. A range of training materials have been developed, and protocols and guidelines have been issued, including on investigation, prosecution and legal proceedings as well as

cooperation between different authorities (Australia, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Colombia, Djibouti, Dominican Republic, Indonesia, Netherlands, Norway, Philippines, Spain, Sudan, Sweden and Uganda). States have established specialized centres for investigations (Portugal); specialized police and prosecution units, or staff within those units (Bahrain, Chile, Cyprus, Dominican Republic, Mauritius, Mexico, Norway, Paraguay, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Spain, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland and Uganda); specialized courts or units within courts (Argentina, Colombia, Ecuador, Mauritius, Paraguay and Spain); and specialized units within ministries (Djibouti, Mexico and Samoa).

14. Evaluation of the effectiveness and implementation of laws is critical in order to identify areas for improvement. Several States have undertaken studies to review and evaluate their legislation (Australia, Belize, Mexico, Paraguay, Spain and Sudan). Some States, such as Argentina, Colombia, Mexico and Spain, have put in place specific mechanisms to monitor the implementation of their legislation. These reviews and evaluations are often carried out in consultation with civil society. The effectiveness of specialized police and prosecutor units/staff and their contribution to more uniform practice and quality control was highlighted.

B. National action plans, strategies and national coordination mechanisms and collaboration

15. National action plans and strategies on violence against women provide an overarching framework which can enhance coordination among relevant sectors and provide timelines for activities. Numerous countries have adopted dedicated policies on violence against women in general (Bolivia, Cameroon, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, France, Iceland, Paraguay, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden and Tunisia), or on a particular form of violence, such as domestic violence (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Chile, Lithuania, Mauritius, Netherlands and Norway), female genital mutilation/cutting (Belgium, Djibouti, Kenya and Senegal), forced marriage (Belgium and Norway) or sexual violence (Ecuador and Republic of Korea). These plans commonly include measures to prevent, investigate and prosecute violence against women; support and assist victims/survivors; develop laws; undertake research and collect data; train police, legal, health and other personnel; and promote cooperation among those involved in addressing violence against women. Some countries which have adopted or are developing their second or third national action plan have dedicated attention to new areas of focus, such as different forms of violence, including forced marriage or female genital mutilation/cutting, the justice system or children witnessing violence against women (Belgium, Iceland, France, Netherlands and Portugal). Indicators and timelines to monitor and evaluate the implementation of national action plans have been included in some plans, such as in Portugal. Some States have in place special institutions or mechanisms to regularly evaluate their national action plans, policies and activities (Belize, Norway, Spain and Sweden). Several States reported on strategies and programmes in other areas which can help to reduce women's vulnerability to violence, including those related to poverty reduction (Norway and Yemen), homelessness (Australia and Sweden) and unemployment (Belarus), and activities aimed at women's economic empowerment (Cameroon, Djibouti, Mauritius, Samoa and Senegal). A number of States are in the process of developing national action plans and/or dedicated policies on violence against women in general (Argentina, Australia, Italy,

Kenya, Senegal, Uganda and Venezuela), or on a particular form of violence, including female genital mutilation/cutting (Finland and Senegal), forced marriage (Sweden), stalking (Italy) and domestic violence (Belgium and Cyprus). Some States have or are developing plans of action and policies at the local level (Iceland, Mexico and Sudan). The need to translate strategies into concrete programmes and actions was stressed.

16. Incorporating targets and activities related to ending violence against women in national action plans on other issues reaffirms the important message that without addressing violence against women, other areas of national progress will suffer. Several Member States have incorporated, or are in the process of incorporating, in their national action plans on human rights provisions related to violence against women (Philippines), gender equality (Bolivia, Chile, Finland, Georgia, Japan, Portugal, Serbia, Spain and Switzerland), advancement of women (Bahrain and Syrian Arab Republic), security (Finland) and reproductive health (Ecuador, Paraguay and Switzerland).

17. Dedicated national mechanisms have been established to tackle violence against women in general or a particular form of violence, such as domestic violence (Finland, Georgia, Lithuania, Mauritius and Portugal) or female genital mutilation/cutting (Djibouti, Kenya and Norway), and to improve coordination among different stakeholders (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Paraguay, Republic of Korea, Slovakia, Spain and Tunisia). These mechanisms often include multisectoral task forces and commissions, specialized units within ministries, or expert groups, and in many cases they consist of representatives of governmental bodies, parliamentarians and non-governmental organizations. Efforts to enhance collaboration and coordination among different stakeholders also include cooperation arrangements between different governmental authorities, national and regional conferences, training, events, and national working groups and networks (Belgium, Bolivia, Bulgaria, Canada, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Finland, France, Iceland, Italy, Kenya, Lebanon, Lithuania, Mauritius, Mexico, Norway, Paraguay, Poland, Russian Federation, Serbia, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland and Yemen). A number of States highlighted the collaboration between the Government and civil society, in particular women's non-governmental organizations (Canada, Finland, Lithuania, Samoa, Spain and Sweden). Several States reported that there has been an increase in funding allocated for the implementation of national action plans and policies, and that collaboration among different governmental authorities has been strengthened (Australia, Iceland, Italy, Norway, Republic of Korea, Samoa and Sweden).

C. Prevention measures, including awareness-raising and capacity-building

18. In order to eliminate violence against women, States must not only punish perpetrators, but also undertake measures to prevent such violence. Engaging all stakeholders is necessary in order to change societal attitudes that condone violence against women and perpetuate gender inequality. An increasing range of stakeholders, including civil society organizations, religious and community leaders, the media, the private sector, youth, men and boys and high-level government officials are increasingly engaged in initiatives to end violence against women (Belarus, Congo, Cyprus, France, Mauritius, Philippines, Serbia and Switzerland).

Campaigns to sensitize community and religious leaders were carried out in several States, including Cameroon, the Congo and Mauritius. States have used a range of methods to increase public awareness of, and sensitivity to, the issue of violence against women, and are increasingly basing these efforts on research findings or assessments, such as in Australia and Canada. In Bolivia (Plurinational State of) and Colombia, efforts were based on a specific communication strategy. A significant number of countries have organized national campaigns on awareness-raising and zero tolerance of violence against women (Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, France, Iceland, Paraguay, Slovakia, Spain and Syrian Arab Republic), including on domestic violence specifically (Bulgaria, Netherlands, Republic of Korea, Sweden and Switzerland). Several campaigns were carried out in connection with annual commemorations of the 16 Days of Activism to End Gender-based Violence and the International Day for the Elimination of Violence against Women (Belarus, Belize, China, Colombia, Congo, Dominican Republic, Japan, Lebanon, Mauritius, Philippines and Samoa). Some campaigns on domestic violence were inspired by the regional Council of Europe campaign (Azerbaijan and Cyprus). Campaigns on violence against women have been carried out at local levels, for example, in the Russian Federation. In several States, funding has been provided to non-governmental organizations and local authorities to carry out awareness-raising campaigns and prevention activities (Australia, Canada, Cyprus, Netherlands and Sweden). A number of States referred to international, regional and national conferences, seminars, trainings and other events that had been organized, often in collaboration with United Nations entities, to raise awareness of violence against women, national laws and international standards (Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Belize, Canada, China, Netherlands, Philippines, Sudan, Syrian Arab Republic and Yemen). Training and seminars on gender issues, including violence against women, have been conducted for targeted groups, including peace-keeping personnel (Iceland and Sweden), parliamentarians, civil servants and non-governmental organizations (Cameroon, Djibouti and Kenya). Publications, brochures, websites, audio-visual material, social media, television/radio spots, and debates have been utilized in awareness-raising and information programmes. It was stressed that a single campaign is not sufficient to raise awareness and that the message has to be regularly repeated (Netherlands).

19. Several States undertook initiatives to inform victims/survivors and women at risk of violence of their rights, including helplines and websites, to encourage victims to seek assistance (France, Italy, Japan, Lithuania, Portugal and Serbia) and legal clinics informing women of their rights (Belize). In Finland, Iceland and Norway, materials were translated into several languages. Some of these efforts aimed to reach particular groups of women, such as immigrants (Finland), internally displaced persons (Azerbaijan), indigenous women (Mexico) and foreign domestic workers (Lebanon).

20. Educational curricula and institutions provide an important opportunity and forum within which attitudes that perpetuate violence against women can be addressed and women's rights promoted. In several countries, training has been provided to sensitize teachers on violence against women, gender equality and human rights (Djibouti, Ecuador, Mexico, Slovakia, Spain and Turkmenistan). States have developed curricula and educational material on gender equality, respect for human rights and the elimination of violence against women (Iceland, Mexico and Spain), national principles for schools free of violence (Australia) and guidelines for

teachers and parents (Republic of Korea). Awareness-raising days and programmes to heighten awareness of violence against women and help students develop skills in building and sustaining respectful and non-violent relationships were organized in numerous countries (Australia, Belize, Bosnia and Herzegovina, China, Congo, France, Italy, Mexico, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia, Syrian Arab Republic, Sudan and Switzerland).

21. The media is an important conduit of public opinion and can influence societal attitudes. Training journalists to report on violence against women in a gender-sensitive manner can help to dispel myths and create awareness of the issue among the general public. In some States, journalists have received training on violence against women (Bahrain, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Paraguay and Syrian Arab Republic). Special commissions and bodies to monitor the impact of gender and sexist stereotypes in the media on violence against women have been established, for example, in France and Spain.

22. The role of youth and men and boys in addressing violence against women has been recognized as a critical component of prevention efforts. An increasing number of Member States have undertaken efforts to sensitize and mobilize men, boys, teenagers and young adults on violence against women (Australia, Bahrain, Belgium, Chile, Lebanon, Mexico, Norway, Philippines, Portugal, Samoa and Spain). These initiatives have included national campaigns, seminars, programmes and workshops, including on developing skills to resolve conflicts in a non-violent manner, training of non-governmental organization personnel, creation of networks of male advocates, cooperation with the White Ribbon Campaign, and the participation of high-level officials in the Network of Men Leaders of the Secretary-General's global campaign UNiTE to End Violence against Women.

23. A growing number of States have in place intervention programmes for perpetrators of violence against women aimed at changing their attitudes and behaviour (Austria, Belgium, Belize, Bulgaria, Chile, Cyprus, Iceland, Lithuania, Mexico, Netherlands, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Samoa, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland). These programmes often include a diagnosis at an early stage and follow-up monitoring of perpetrators. In several States, guidelines have been developed for institutions in charge of such programmes (France), and funding has increased for their implementation (Belgium and Sweden) and for relevant research (Australia). Training programmes have also been carried out for staff dealing with the rehabilitation of perpetrators (Belize, Mauritius and Philippines).

24. States drew attention to some of the factors that perpetuate violence against women, including discriminatory laws, attitudes and practices. It was noted that although prevention measures had been intensified, their implementation continued to lack effectiveness. Some efforts have been made to identify gaps in prevention and to elaborate promising practices (Canada). In Norway, a special committee has been established to recommend prevention measures in relation to sexual assault.

D. Protection, support and services for victims/survivors

25. Victims/survivors of violence against women require timely access to support services that respond to short-term injuries, protect them from further violence, provide them with support, including legal advice, counselling and psychological

care, and address long-term needs, such as finding accommodation and employment. Support services are increasingly available to victims/survivors. A promising trend in service provision has been the establishment of centres, including mobile ones (Mexico), which provide a range of services for victims/survivors of violence against women in an integrated and coordinated manner in one location (Bahrain, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Georgia, Indonesia, Lithuania, Mauritius, Paraguay, Philippines, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Syrian Arab Republic and Switzerland). Recognizing that civil society organizations, in particular women's non-governmental organizations, have significant experience and expertise in providing services to victims/survivors of violence, a number of Member States have supported and financed the work of such organizations in providing services for victims/survivors of violence (Bulgaria, Iceland, Lithuania, Mauritius, Mexico, Portugal, Russian Federation, Sweden and Uganda). Referral mechanisms have been established in several States (Colombia, France and Netherlands). Efforts are under way in some States to enhance collaboration among stakeholders dealing with individual cases of violence (Finland, Lithuania and Netherlands). The Dominican Republic and Mexico have developed an inventory of support services, shelters and centres for victims/survivors, and Argentina is in the process of mapping out such services. Many support services are, however, only available in central locations.

26. Shelters and safe houses are more widely available for victims/survivors of different forms of violence and for different groups of victims/survivors, such as domestic workers, women with disabilities, women migrants and children victims/witnesses of violence (Bahrain, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Chile, China, Dominican Republic, Finland, France, Lebanon, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Philippines, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Samoa, Serbia, Sweden, Switzerland and Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)). National hotlines or help lines that provide information, often in several languages, counselling, support and referral services for victims/survivors of violence are in place in a growing number of countries (Australia, Bahrain, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Cameroon, Dominican Republic, France, Georgia, Italy, Japan, Lithuania, Mauritius, Mexico, Netherlands, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Senegal, Serbia, Spain, Syrian Arab Republic and Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)). In several countries, support services include financial assistance (Mauritius and Republic of Korea), and assistance in finding long-term housing (Australia, Chile, Portugal and Republic of Korea) and employment (Mauritius). Other developments in service provision include the provision of child care (Republic of Korea), vocational training (Congo, Senegal and Serbia), post-violence kits and prophylaxis (Sudan), medical treatment and psychological support at hospitals for victims/survivors of violence (Congo and Kenya), free legal aid (Cameroon, Chile, Congo and Uganda), establishment of support groups at community level (Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)), specialized services for indigenous women victims of violence (Mexico), and efforts to improve assistance to internally displaced women victims of violence (Colombia).

27. In some countries, evaluation or studies concerning shelters for women victims of violence were carried out (Finland, Netherlands and Switzerland). Spain has put in place a system of quality control in respect of health and social services for women victims/survivors of violence.

28. Training and projects to build capacity and raise awareness of staff dealing with cases of violence against women, including medical and health staff, were organized in numerous States, and training materials, including handbooks and manuals, were also elaborated (Australia, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Cyprus, Dominican Republic, Japan, Kenya, Lebanon, Mexico, Norway, Paraguay, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovakia, Sudan, Switzerland and Syrian Arab Republic). Such initiatives often involved a wide spectrum of stakeholders, and some focused on the needs of different groups of women victims of violence, such as women from ethnic minority groups, while others facilitated the exchange of experience among neighbouring countries. In order to support the work of social services and staff working with victims/survivors, a number of States developed standard operating procedures, guidelines and tools on case management and good practices, and also issued protocols and regulations (Bulgaria, Canada, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Indonesia, Italy, Mauritius, Norway, Paraguay, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Serbia, Slovakia, Sudan and Sweden).

E. Data collection and analysis

29. Solid data on violence against women are critical to the development and implementation of sound laws, policies, strategies and prevention measures. Some Member States indicated that cases of domestic violence reported to police had increased (Cyprus and Portugal). Attention was drawn to certain groups of women who continue to be exposed to higher levels of violence, such as young women (Italy), or ethnic minorities (Norway). A number of States emphasized the continuing challenge of the lack of data on violence against women, including the lack of uniform data collection systems and lack of disaggregated data (Argentina, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Finland, Iraq, Senegal, Switzerland and Yemen).

30. The collection of data must be systematic, disaggregated by demographic factors such as sex, age and ethnicity, and conducted in a gender-sensitive manner by interviewers familiar with the nature of violence against women. The most comprehensive manner of collecting data on such violence is by conducting a dedicated population-based survey on violence against women. Several Member States have undertaken dedicated surveys on violence against women, some of them on a regular basis, and with a permanent funding, in relation to the prevalence, reasons and consequences of violence against women, and attitudes of the population towards such violence (Australia, Canada, Djibouti, Iceland, Japan, Mexico, Norway, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland and Syrian Arab Republic). Several Member States have collected data on violence against women through a module attached to other population-based surveys, such as national demographic and health surveys (Philippines and Switzerland) and crime and victimization surveys (Canada, Paraguay and Sweden).

31. Administrative statistics, such as numbers of cases reported to police and charges laid, or the number of admissions to hospitals or shelters of victims/survivors of violence, also provide a source of information on the prevalence and severity of violence against women. Several States reported on measures taken to enhance the collection and analysis of administrative data by police, prosecutors and other relevant authorities (Argentina, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Bosnia and Herzegovina, China, Colombia, Finland, Portugal, Serbia and

Switzerland). A promising trend in the collection of administrative data has been the creation of national databases/registries and unified data collection systems on violence against women, as is the case in several countries (Cyprus, Ecuador, Mexico and Philippines).

32. States have strengthened efforts to develop national capacity to collect accurate data on violence against women, including specialized training events for statisticians and the adoption of guidelines and rules for data collection. In a number of countries, observatories have been established to collect and analyse data and information on violence against women, to identify gaps and propose new policies (Argentina, Congo, Paraguay and Spain). National indicators on violence against women, safety of women and children, and access of victims/survivors to justice have also been developed (Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Bulgaria, Colombia, Finland and Republic of Korea). A seminar on data collection techniques for cases of sexual violence was held in the Congo, while in Sweden a methodology to collect data on violence against women in national crime victim surveys was developed.

33. Studies and research on violence against women provide important inputs into policy development processes. Some States have undertaken studies to assess the economic impact of violence against women (Australia, Portugal and Switzerland), with one estimate suggesting that violence costs the country $13.6 billion per annum (Australia). A specialized centre engaged in research and development of guidelines and training has been established in Norway, and research and studies have been carried out in numerous States, including by non-governmental organizations, and often with the support of United Nations entities (Bahrain, Belgium, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), China, Cyprus, Dominican Republic, Lebanon, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Senegal, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic and Uganda). A comprehensive study was carried out in Yemen in 2008 on the scope, causes and consequences of violence against women and its different forms, and included gaps in laws and policies and recommendations for further action.

IV. Conclusions and recommendations

34. Many actions have been taken by Member States to prevent and address violence against women. States have strengthened their national legal, policy and institutional frameworks as well as the coordination among a range of different stakeholders. Good practices have been identified and should be replicated and used as the basis for designing and implementing better laws, policies and programmes. Implementation of all measures taken, including ensuring adequate resources, together with monitoring and evaluation of their impact, should be a main focus for further action.

35. Many States have carried out legal reform to address violence against women. States have introduced new criminal offences and increased penalties, broadened definitions of violence against women, and expanded the scope of protection and support for victims/survivors. A promising practice has been the adoption of comprehensive legislation on violence against women, which not only criminalizes such violence, but also mandates support and protection for victims/survivors, prevention measures, funding and the creation of institutional mechanisms. These efforts should continue and be reinforced in order to ensure that a comprehensive and consistent legal foundation exists to

prevent and address violence against women and promote women's human rights. States should ensure that training for law enforcement officials, the judiciary and other relevant personnel on violence against women is systematic, and that criminal justice processes and procedures are gender-sensitive and protect the rights of the complainants/survivors and enhance their safety. States should continue to establish specialized police, prosecution units and other mechanisms and ensure specialized training for their staff. Civil protection orders, civil law suits and other legal remedies should be available to complainants/survivors to complement criminal measures. States should ensure that all barriers to the access of victims/survivors to justice are removed, including ensuring free legal aid, interpretation and court support in all legal proceedings. Accountability mechanisms should be put in place, such as penalties for non-compliance with the law.

36. States have adopted national action plans/dedicated policies on violence against women, or on a particular form of violence, and established institutional mechanisms to address violence against women and ensure coordination among different stakeholders. States should ensure that such plans and policies are comprehensive and multidisciplinary in scope, incorporate measurable goals and timetables, monitoring and accountability measures, provide for impact assessments, and ensure coordination of action and clear roles and responsibilities among all stakeholders. Coordination mechanisms should continue to be strengthened. States should ensure that all policies and strategies on violence against women are translated into concrete action and adequately funded.

37. The availability of services for victims/survivors of violence has increased. A promising trend which should be replicated has been the establishment of centres that provide a range of services in one location, including counselling, shelter and medical and legal services. Such centres should be extended throughout the country, including rural areas. States should ensure that support and services are adequately resourced and available to all victims/survivors, including those in rural and remote areas. All professionals handling cases of violence against women should be systematically trained. Referral mechanisms should be reinforced and information about the availability of existing services should be broadly disseminated.

38. Efforts have been made to improve collection of data on violence against women, including a growing number of population-based surveys to assess the prevalence of violence against women and the creation of national databases. The availability of more and better quality information, including statistical data, is crucial. Such information allows policymakers to undertake effective legislative and policy reforms, ensure adequate provision of targeted and effective services, monitor trends and progress in addressing and eliminating violence against women, and assess the impact of measures taken. States should continue and reinforce their efforts. Statistical data should be gathered at regular intervals on the causes, consequences and frequency of all forms of violence against women, and on the effectiveness of measures to prevent and address such violence. Statistical data should be disaggregated by sex, race, age, ethnicity and other relevant characteristics. States should intensify their efforts to build the capacity of statisticians to collect data on violence against women in a gender-sensitive manner, and adopt guidelines and rules for uniform data

collection. Qualitative research should be intensified to facilitate improved understanding and more effective strategies to eliminate violence against women.

39. Despite impressive efforts by numerous countries around the world, women continue to be subjected to many different forms of violence, and new forms are constantly evolving. Thus, a stronger focus must be placed on prevention, to complement more effectively the improved laws, policies and programmes and their implementation, monitoring and evaluation. These efforts should be rigorously evaluated to gain a better understanding of their impact and effectiveness, including when they form part of a comprehensive approach to addressing violence against women. The information and awareness-raising campaigns, educational programmes and other initiatives aimed at preventing and eliminating violence against women carried out by States should be reinforced to ensure that they are systematic, sustained and extended throughout all areas of the country, and target particular groups of women, such as immigrants, rural and indigenous women, women from ethnic minorities, and women with disabilities. Political commitment and leadership at all levels are vital and should be complemented by a broad range of partnerships and the active involvement of all relevant stakeholders, including Governments, civil society and in particular women's organizations, community and religious leaders, international organizations and the private sector. Environments and communities must be safe for women and girls, and efforts to end violence against women must be pursued with the full involvement of men and boys. Empowering women and strengthening their economic independence, and eliminating discrimination against them in law and in practice are critical. Educational curricula at all levels should promote gender equality and women's human rights and condemn violence against women. Advocacy campaigns and programmes, including with the participation of the media, should focus on increasing public awareness of the unacceptability of violence against women, raising women's awareness of their rights and available remedies and support, and tackling gender stereotypes that perpetuate violence and discrimination against women. Such campaigns and programmes should be directed at the general public as well as particular groups. Informational materials should be available in multiple languages, as needed. Prevention activities should extend to sports organizations/clubs, youth organizations and special programmes in schools and include efforts aimed at building skills in the development of respectful relations.

United Nations A/65/209

General Assembly

Distr.: General
2 August 2010

Original: English

Sixty-fifth session
Item 28 of the provisional agenda*
Advancement of women

Trafficking in women and girls

Report of the Secretary-General

Summary

In resolution 63/156, the General Assembly highlighted the need to protect and assist all victims of trafficking, with full respect for their human rights. It outlined concrete measures, addressing them to States and other stakeholders, to prevent and eliminate trafficking in persons, especially women and children. The Assembly requested the Secretary-General to submit to it, at its sixty-fifth session, a report on this issue. The present report, which is submitted pursuant to that request, is divided into four parts: part I covers the introduction; part II contains the measures taken by Member States; and part III outlines activities undertaken within the United Nations system to combat and eliminate trafficking in women and girls. Part IV contains the conclusions and recommendations for future action.

* A/65/150.

10-47057 (E) 250810

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I. Introduction

1. In its resolution 63/156, on trafficking in women and girls, the General Assembly called upon Governments to strengthen measures to combat and eliminate all forms of trafficking in women and girls, and to implement actions at the bilateral, subregional, regional and international levels, in cooperation with all relevant actors. The Assembly called upon Governments to address the factors that increase women's vulnerability to being trafficked, criminalize all forms of trafficking in persons, strengthen preventive action, support victims/survivors of trafficking, and enhance information-sharing and data collection. The Assembly requested the Secretary-General to submit to it, at its sixty-fifth session, a report that compiled successful interventions and strategies, as well as gaps, in addressing the gender dimensions of the problem of trafficking in persons, and provided recommendations on the strengthening of gender- and age-sensitive approaches within the various aspects of efforts to address trafficking in persons. The present report is submitted in accordance with that request and is based, inter alia, on information received from Member States, entities of the United Nations system and other organizations. It covers the period since the previous report (A/63/215).

II. Measures reported by Member States

2. As at 27 May 2010, 59 Member States had responded to the Secretary-General's request for information.[1] The reported efforts and measures taken to combat trafficking in women and girls include ratification of relevant international instruments, strengthened legal and policy frameworks, enhanced coordination and cooperation with different stakeholders, and reinforced prevention measures and efforts to prosecute perpetrators and support victims/survivors.

A. International instruments

3. International law obligates and guides States in the adoption of anti-trafficking laws and policies, and States' adherence to such treaties is indicative of their commitment to action. Since the previous report, the number of States parties to international legal instruments relevant to combating trafficking in women and girls has further increased. Of those countries that submitted information for the present report, Indonesia and the Syrian Arab Republic have become party to the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, as well as the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air. Yemen has become party to the Convention; China and Qatar have become party to

[1] Replies were received from Algeria, Australia, Argentina, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Cameroon, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, the Congo, Croatia, Cyprus, Denmark, Djibouti, the Dominican Republic, Finland, Georgia, Germany, Haiti, Indonesia, Italy, Jamaica, Kenya, Lebanon, Lithuania, Malta, Mauritius, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, the Niger, Qatar, Paraguay, the Philippines, Poland, Portugal, the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, Samoa, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, the Sudan, Sweden, the Syrian Arab Republic, Uganda, Ukraine, the United Republic of Tanzania and Yemen.

the trafficking Protocol; and the Niger and Paraguay have become party to the migrants Protocol.

4. Of the States reporting, the Congo and Germany have become party to the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child; and Australia, Mauritius and Switzerland have become party to the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. Finland and New Zealand have signed the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography, while the Congo has signed the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

5. States drew attention to regional instruments relevant to the issue of trafficking in women and girls, such as the Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking in Human Beings; the Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse; the Inter-American Convention on International Traffic in Minors; and the Abu Dhabi Declaration (unified law) on combating human trafficking in the Gulf countries.

B. Legislation and the justice system

6. Comprehensive legal frameworks provide the foundation for effective action against trafficking in women and girls at the national level. Progress in strengthening such frameworks and bringing them into line with international and regional standards is therefore essential for combating trafficking in women and girls. However, the absence of specific anti-trafficking legislation, or delays in adopting such laws, constitutes an obstacle to an effective response.

7. In many States, penal codes, but also immigration, asylum or related laws now include explicit criminal offences related to human trafficking (Algeria, Australia, Azerbaijan, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Bulgaria, Canada, Colombia, Croatia, Denmark, Finland, Georgia, Lithuania, Mauritius, Malta, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland and Ukraine). In some States, these laws cover various forms of trafficking, including for purposes of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, or removal of organs (Bulgaria, Lithuania, Malta, Netherlands, Portugal, Russian Federation, Serbia, Sweden and Switzerland), as well internal trafficking (Bulgaria, Canada, Colombia, Georgia, Portugal and Sweden). Numerous States have strengthened penalties for traffickers to make them commensurate with those prescribed for other grave crimes. Punishments include fines as well as imprisonment ranging between 5 and 15 years, and tend to increase in aggravating circumstances, especially when the victim is a child. Persons who knowingly use the services of victims/survivors of trafficking are criminally liable, including in Croatia, Georgia, Portugal and Serbia. In Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden, penal legislation covers human trafficking offences committed in other countries. Colombia and Paraguay prohibit human trafficking in their constitutions.

8. Trafficking can also be subsumed under other offences, including removal of organs (Spain), leading or forcing a person into prostitution (Poland), slavery (Cameroon, Slovenia and Sudan), forced labour (Cameroon, Djibouti and Saudi Arabia), abduction (Sudan), sexual violence (Algeria), sexual and commercial exploitation of children (Congo), or illegal adoptions (Croatia, Serbia and Spain).

9. In addition to criminalizing trafficking within the framework of penal law, an increasing number of countries are using the promising practice of putting in place comprehensive laws, covering trafficking offences, together with a range of other measures, such as protection and support services for victims/survivors, including temporary residency permits; compensation for damages to victims/survivors; prevention measures; and the establishment of national coordination bodies on trafficking in persons (Bulgaria, Cyprus, Djibouti, Georgia, Mauritius, Mexico, Philippines and Senegal). Other States have in place a specific law on human trafficking (Argentina, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Brunei Darussalam, Dominican Republic, Indonesia, Jamaica, Kenya, Saudi Arabia, Syrian Arab Republic, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania), or on trafficking in children (Cameroon). Protection, assistance and reintegration services for victims/survivors are also increasingly enshrined in law or legislative provisions (Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bulgaria, Canada, Colombia, Finland, Indonesia, Italy, Malta, New Zealand, Slovakia, Sweden and Switzerland), as are the issuance of residency permits for victims/survivors (Austria, Belarus, Finland, Italy, Lithuania, Malta, Netherlands, Portugal, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia and Sweden); reparation for victims/survivors (Austria, Bulgaria, Lithuania, Slovakia and Slovenia); and monitoring and regulation of international marriage agencies (Republic of Korea). Efforts are under way in several States to amend or adopt anti-trafficking legislation (Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Lebanon, Niger, Paraguay, Poland, Qatar, Spain, Sweden, Ukraine and Yemen).

10. Progress has also been made in protecting and assisting victims/survivors of trafficking during criminal proceedings. A range of measures exist, for example, witness protection programmes (Austria, Belarus, Georgia, Philippines, Russian Federation, Slovakia, Slovenia and Spain); support for victims/survivors giving evidence (Canada, Denmark, Indonesia, Poland and Slovakia) through the use of videoconferencing (Sweden); and closed hearings (Georgia and Italy). Special police and/or prosecution units have been established in a number of countries (Argentina, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Lithuania, Mexico, Philippines, Poland, Switzerland and the United Republic of Tanzania). Training programmes and materials on human trafficking, including guidelines for investigation and prosecution, have been provided to police and/or prosecutors in the majority of reporting countries, some of which have focused on trafficking in children, or the removal of organs. On the other hand, however, reported prosecution rates remain low. While inadequate law enforcement was cited as one of the possible reasons for this situation, States emphasized the need to prosecute and punish all perpetrators, including public officials involved with trafficking circles.

C. National action plans, strategies and national coordination mechanisms

11. National action plans and strategies offer overarching frameworks for measures to prevent and combat human trafficking, and enhance coordination among relevant sectors and stakeholders. Dedicated anti-trafficking plans are increasingly in place, and many of them contain specific measures on trafficking in women and/or children (Argentina, Austria, Australia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Brazil, Bulgaria, China, Colombia, Congo, Croatia, Cyprus, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Finland, Georgia, Lebanon, Lithuania, Mexico,

New Zealand, Netherlands, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Ukraine and Yemen). Based on experience gained and lessons learned, such plans and strategies now commonly include measures in all areas necessary for systematic anti-trafficking work, and in particular measures to effectively investigate and prosecute trafficking; identify, protect, support, rehabilitate and reintegrate victims/survivors; develop or amend laws; undertake research, prepare reports and collect data; provide training to a range of professionals dealing with trafficking victims/survivors; raise awareness and knowledge among the general public as well as potential victims/survivors; and promote cooperation among all actors addressing human trafficking. Some of the action plans contain specific targets and time frames for activities, and impact assessments are being carried out in several countries.

12. Some States have in place specific plans or strategies on trafficking in women and/or children, or on sexual exploitation. For example, Indonesia has a national action plan to combat trafficking in women and children, and sexual exploitation of children; the Republic of Korea has a plan to prevent sexual exploitation; and the Congo, Croatia and Yemen have adopted strategies to combat child trafficking. Australia and Spain have strategies focused on trafficking for sexual exploitation. Haiti has put in place an action plan to protect vulnerable children, including trafficking victims/survivors. Brazil included provisions on trafficking in women and children in its strategies on violence against women and against children. In Senegal, plans of action to combat trafficking in children are in place at the local level.

13. Dedicated national mechanisms to improve coordination among all actors involved in the development and implementation of laws and policies are recognized as an important tool in the fight against trafficking. In the majority of reporting States, such institutions are in place, while Haiti and the Syrian Arab Republic are planning their establishment. In many countries, such mechanisms are multisectoral, consisting of representatives of public authorities, including law enforcement, prosecution and immigration authorities; service providers; and civil society. Bulgaria, Colombia, Indonesia and the Philippines have created provincial and/or local coordination bodies. Some countries have appointed national rapporteurs on trafficking (Finland, Netherlands and Sweden), while others have established a network of centres (Brazil), or specialized trafficking units within key governmental authorities (Azerbaijan, Belarus, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Lithuania, Malta, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Poland and Russian Federation) or the national human rights institution (Saudi Arabia).

D. Bilateral, regional and international agreements and cooperation

14. States have acknowledged that bilateral and multilateral cooperation are key to combating and eliminating trafficking in women and girls, and numerous States have increased their efforts to expand and strengthen such cooperation.

15. At the regional level, a range of agreements and strategies have been adopted or are being developed. For example, the Organization of American States has in place strategies to combat trafficking in persons, while members of the Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR) have concluded an agreement to prevent the trafficking and smuggling of children and adolescents for purposes of sexual

exploitation. Nicaragua drew attention to a subregional coalition to combat trafficking and protect victims/survivors. Australia, Canada, Indonesia, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea and the Syrian Arab Republic reported on the Bali Process, a collaborative effort of over 50 countries and international agencies to enhance regional cooperation and coordination on people smuggling, trafficking in persons and related transnational crime. Others referred to a memorandum of understanding and a joint plan of action on cooperation against trafficking in persons in the Greater Mekong subregion, adopted within the coordinated Mekong ministerial initiative against trafficking. The Russian Federation highlighted a programme of cooperation in the Commonwealth of Independent States, which includes the development of model laws on combating trafficking and providing assistance to victims/survivors. The European Union has adopted a plan on best practices, standards and procedures for combating and preventing trafficking in human beings. In South-Eastern Europe, multilateral programmes to strengthen anti-trafficking responses and victim protection have been developed. Cameroon, the Congo and Senegal referred to a cooperation agreement to combat trafficking in persons in West and Central Africa, as well as a plan of action against trafficking in persons within the framework of the Economic Community of West African States and the Economic Community of Central African States, both focused on women and children. Several West African States are developing a regional policy to protect and assist victims/survivors of trafficking, as well as subregional action plans/agreements to combat trafficking in children.

16. Many countries have concluded bilateral cooperation agreements/partnerships, often with a view to improving law enforcement and prosecution efforts (Algeria, Austria, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Brazil, Bulgaria, Cameroon, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Congo, Cyprus, Finland, Georgia, Lithuania, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Poland, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Senegal, Serbia, Slovenia, Spain, Ukraine, United Republic of Tanzania and Yemen). Several States highlighted their cooperation within the International Criminal Police Organization (INTERPOL), the European Police Office (Europol) or Eurojust, or in regional task forces or networks against trafficking in persons or on organized crime, such as those established under the auspices of the Baltic Sea States. Some States, such as Finland, have stationed liaison officers in countries of origin.

17. The majority of reporting States cooperate in and/or support bilateral and/or multilateral programmes and projects to combat trafficking in persons, together with United Nations and regional entities, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and other States, including development projects in and with countries of origin. These projects cover a range of initiatives to prevent and combat trafficking, such as training of law enforcement, judicial, diplomatic, immigration and other personnel; enhancing victim support and assistance; rehabilitating and reintegrating rescued victims/survivors; awareness-raising; reviewing legislative and institutional frameworks; exchanging information and best practices; addressing the root causes of trafficking; promoting gender equality and empowering women and girls; and conducting studies on the scope and nature of trafficking and its consequences. Many States have hosted or participated in bilateral, regional or international conferences/meetings on trafficking in persons.

E. Prevention measures, including awareness-raising, and capacity-building

18. Prevention is integral to any strategy to eliminate trafficking in women and girls. An increasing range of prevention measures is being carried out by States. Educational programmes on gender equality, women's human rights, violence against women, sexual exploitation and forced labour, and awareness-raising and information campaigns aimed at improving knowledge and awareness of human trafficking and its risks, as well as of existing anti-trafficking measures, have been identified as useful prevention tools and are being implemented by the majority of reporting States. Other activities include the publication of articles, posters, advertisements and pamphlets in electronic and print media; the airing of radio and television programmes and videos and creation of anti-trafficking websites; the screening of films and documentaries; and discussion of human trafficking as part of school curricula. Sports and other contests, and public performances, plays, exhibitions, workshops and lectures are also being used to raise awareness and build knowledge. Many of the activities are carried out in multiple languages and in cooperation with partners, including non-governmental organizations, international and regional organizations, national human rights institutions, the media and the business sector.

19. General as well as targeted information campaigns have been carried out, in particular, to tackle the issue of demand. In the Republic of Korea, a campaign focused on prevention of sexual exploitation and prostitution, while in the Netherlands, an awareness campaign targeted persons who use sexual services. In Croatia and Denmark, campaigns were aimed at potential users of the services of victims/survivors of trafficking, for sexual as well as labour exploitation. Sweden is evaluating its measures to curb the demand for sexual services, and Australia is implementing an awareness strategy on trafficking to educate people working in the sex industry and those who come into contact with them. Other current or planned campaigns aim to raise awareness of forced labour and labour exploitation (Bulgaria, Cameroon and Poland), criminal activity surrounding mega-events (Canada) and child abuse (Kenya). Targeted campaigns, together with outreach activities and distribution of information materials, on trafficking have been carried out in presumed risk areas (China and Nicaragua), in detention facilities for aliens (Slovakia), or airports (Chile), and directed at potential victims; students and parents, as well as children in alternative care settings; unemployed persons; members of minority groups; potential or current migrants or temporary foreign workers, in particular women, and their potential employers (Austria, Brazil, Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Finland, Georgia, Jamaica, Lithuania, Mexico, Malta, New Zealand, Poland, Portugal, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Slovakia and Ukraine). Anti-trafficking information campaigns to raise awareness among persons working in the tourism industry were carried out in Mexico, Senegal and Spain.

20. States increasingly highlighted the need to address the conditions that make women and children vulnerable to being trafficked, such as poverty and lack of employment and education opportunities, as part of prevention strategies. Towards this end, States reported on programmes to eradicate poverty and extend social security networks (Algeria, Mexico and Yemen); poverty-eradication activities aimed at women (Djibouti and Sudan); measures to improve access of girls and

women to education (Cameroon, Djibouti and Sudan); and vocational training for women (Colombia and Senegal).

21. All those who respond to trafficking in women and girls require the capacity to deal with trafficking in a gender-sensitive and effective manner. The majority of States offered training programmes, guidelines and manuals on trafficking in women and girls and, more generally, on the human rights of women and children. These were frequently geared towards Government officials, in particular immigration and diplomatic personnel, police officers, judicial personnel; social workers; health workers; teachers; job centre employees; labour inspectors; staff in detention facilities and alternative care facilities; helpline operators; trainers on trafficking; and others who might come into contact with trafficking victims/survivors. Training events were frequently conducted in cooperation with, or by, non-governmental organizations, national human rights institutions, regional and international partners and other States. The scope of such training included investigation and prosecution of perpetrators, and identification, protection of, and support for victims/survivors. Several countries provided training on trafficking for personnel serving in peacekeeping or other international operations.

22. Capacity-building efforts also encompassed the establishment of specialized centres. For example, a centre against human trafficking was created in Denmark to improve support to victims/survivors, coordinate collaboration between social organizations and other public authorities, and collect and convey information on trafficking in human beings. In Belarus, an international training centre was established to provide training on migration and trafficking prevention.

23. States recognized the need to strengthen prevention efforts. General awareness and knowledge of trafficking in women and girls continues to be low, and securing the necessary funding for initiatives, including capacity-building, remains a persistent challenge.

F. Services and support for victims/survivors

24. Victims of trafficking must be correctly identified so that they can be provided with appropriate protection and support. Services, including social support, rehabilitation and reintegration measures, are essential for recovery from trauma. Efforts to better identify victims/survivors have been strengthened in a number of countries, for example, by developing guidance material, including on risk factors and standards for identification (Austria, Azerbaijan, Croatia, Georgia, Lithuania, Mexico, Netherlands, Portugal, Serbia and Slovakia); establishing mechanisms to identify victims/survivors during asylum procedures (Slovenia); and inclusion of the identification of victims/survivors within the mandate of national institutions on trafficking (Argentina). Austria is considering the establishment of a national centre to better identify trafficking victims/survivors. Some States reported efforts to inform trafficking victims/survivors of their rights. For example, Cyprus and Spain have prepared leaflets outlining the rights and recourses of victims/survivors. In several countries, such as in Finland and Slovakia, police are required to provide such information.

25. In an increasing number of countries, specialized services are available for victims/survivors of trafficking, sometimes specifically for women or children. Such services may include psychological, medical, legal, and social/financial assistance,

as well as shelters, which are often run in cooperation with, or by, non-governmental organizations and other partners, and with financial support by States (Argentina, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Brunei Darussalam, Bulgaria, Cameroon, Canada, Colombia, Congo, Croatia, Cyprus, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Georgia, Indonesia, Italy, Jamaica, Lebanon, Lithuania, Malta, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Paraguay, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Uganda, Ukraine and Yemen). Many countries have established hotlines or helplines for victims/survivors of trafficking, or to report cases of trafficking. Countries also undertake programmes for rehabilitation, reintegration and return of victims/survivors, often in cooperation with IOM and/or non-governmental organizations (Australia, Austria, Bulgaria, Croatia, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Finland, Georgia, Indonesia, Italy, Lithuania, Mexico, Nicaragua, Philippines, Poland, Slovakia, Sudan, Sweden, Switzerland, Ukraine and Yemen).

26. Once identified, recovery and reflection periods of generally between one to three months are increasingly granted to trafficking victims/survivors in destination countries, to consider their options (Austria, Bulgaria, Canada, Cyprus, Denmark, Lithuania, Malta, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland). Many States provide, or are preparing to provide, residency permits or stays to victims/survivors (Australia, Austria, Belarus, Brazil, Canada, Cyprus, Finland, Georgia, Italy, Lithuania, Malta, Mexico, New Zealand, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland).

27. There is a growing trend towards the establishment of national referral mechanisms/procedures and national, or multilateral, networks to ensure the effective delivery of support for and protection of victims/survivors, especially children, often in cooperation with civil society (Argentina, Austria, Azerbaijan, Brazil, Bulgaria, Colombia, Croatia, Cyprus, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Georgia, Malta, Netherlands, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Philippines, Portugal, Serbia and Ukraine). Brazil is implementing a pilot project creating an assistance network specifically for women victims/survivors of trafficking. Many countries use protocols, manuals and guidelines for service providers on the protection of and support for trafficking victims/survivors, including Azerbaijan, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Canada, Colombia, Croatia, Germany, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Philippines, Portugal and Spain. Some manuals include specific provisions on children and women.

28. Many of the services offered to victims/survivors are available only in limited and/or urban locations. In addition, in a number of countries, assistance to victims/survivors of trafficking continues to be conditional upon the victims'/survivors' willingness to participate in prosecution.

G. The role of the business sector and media providers

29. States recognize the important role that the private sector can play in combating and preventing trafficking in women and girls and the need to intensify collaboration with that sector. At the same time, the business community continues to create and adopt self-regulatory mechanisms, such as codes of conduct, setting out measures and tools to prevent and combat trafficking. The tourism industries in

Bulgaria and Sweden have signed a code of conduct for the prevention of trafficking and sexual exploitation of children in tourism. Telecommunication companies in Sweden have endorsed corporate social responsibility programmes, including those in support of hotlines to report trafficking cases. The Netherlands cooperates with the tourism industry in awareness-raising on child sex tourism, and is encouraging tour operators to implement a code of conduct on child sex tourism. In Colombia, public-private declarations have been signed to prevent and eradicate child labour. Italy reported on a project to strengthen public-private cooperation concerning the identification of and support for child victims/survivors and children at risk of being trafficked, while Malta is implementing an awareness-raising campaign to combat trafficking in children and adolescents jointly with a cosmetics company, which also makes donations for support services for victims/survivors. Saudi Arabia is planning to monitor employment agencies.

30. Media providers are an important partner in raising awareness and disseminating information. They also have a key role in regard to advertisements and information which can fuel the demand for trafficking in women and girls. Bulgaria, Colombia and Cyprus reported on training programmes for journalists on human trafficking. Spain's national action plan against trafficking aims to reduce advertising of sexual services in the media. In Poland, media providers have carried out advertisement campaigns on trafficking, while in Colombia and Ukraine, television stations include information on trafficking in their programmes as part of awareness-raising campaigns.

H. Data collection and research

31. States acknowledge that trafficking in women and girls remains underdocumented. Research, and the availability and exchange of data, are essential for the development and implementation of better legislation and policies as well as other targeted measures, including services for victims/survivors and impact assessments. Although some States provided some available data on victims/survivors, investigations, prosecutions and convictions in cases of human trafficking, the number of cases that come to the attention of the police, courts or service providers are small, methodologies of such data collection differ, and estimates of the number of victims/survivors vary.

32. States have intensified efforts to initiate or enhance data collection and analysis on trafficking in persons. This is done, for example, through research programmes, training and studies, often in cooperation with international or non-governmental organizations. The range of topics includes: causes of trafficking in women and children; different forms of labour exploitation; demand for services of trafficking victims/survivors; or victim's willingness to testify in criminal proceedings (Australia, Bulgaria, Canada, Colombia, Chile, Cyprus, Denmark, Djibouti, Dominican Republic, Finland, Germany, Indonesia, Lebanon, Mexico, New Zealand, Niger, Poland, Portugal, Samoa, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sudan, Sweden, Uganda, Ukraine and Yemen). In Cyprus, Netherlands and Sweden, the dedicated national coordination mechanism or rapporteur on trafficking is mandated to collect data.

33. States have highlighted promising steps to strengthen the knowledge base on trafficking. These include: a feasibility study on developing a national data-

collection framework (Canada); creation of a national monitoring system (Colombia and Italy); development of databases, and other systems of data collection (Algeria, Argentina, Brazil, Bulgaria, Georgia, Lithuania, Mexico, Philippines, Senegal, Slovakia and Slovenia); creation of a system of registering cases of trafficking in persons (Paraguay and Portugal); development of guidelines for data collection at the regional level and a trafficking index based on indicators (Austria and Sweden); development of indicators (Denmark, Malta and Poland); mapping of trafficking routes (Nicaragua); establishment of a multidisciplinary expertise centre on human trafficking and people smuggling (Netherlands); and an observatory on trafficking in persons (Portugal). Finland reported that the European Institute for Crime Prevention and Control affiliated with the United Nations gathers and analyses data on human trafficking.

III. Activities undertaken within the United Nations system

34. Intergovernmental and expert bodies continue to address trafficking in women and girls, and global discussions have been held on the issue. A number of United Nations entities implemented activities and developed new initiatives, particularly in support of national efforts. As at 27 May 2010, 11 entities of the United Nations system had responded to the Secretary-General's request for information.[2]

A. Global legal and policy development

Resolutions, recommendations and global discussions

35. United Nations intergovernmental and expert bodies continued to adopt resolutions and recommendations to address human trafficking, and trafficking in women and girls in particular. For example, at its sixty-fourth session, in 2009, the General Assembly adopted resolution 64/178 on improving the coordination of efforts against trafficking in persons, and at its session in 2008, the Economic and Social Council adopted resolution 2008/33 on strengthening coordination of the United Nations and other efforts in fighting trafficking in persons. At its eleventh session (2-19 June 2009), the Human Rights Council adopted resolution 11/3 on trafficking in persons, especially women and children.

36. The Human Rights Council working group on the Universal Periodic Review, during its third to eighth sessions, from December 2008 to May 2010, continued to make recommendations relating to trafficking in persons, especially women and children in 75 of the 96 countries it considered, stressing the need for the States concerned to continue, or to intensify efforts to combat and prevent trafficking, and to provide victims/survivors with protection and support. The working group recommended that States should evaluate and monitor the measures they have undertaken to gauge their effectiveness; address the root causes of trafficking;

[2] Department of Public Information, United Nations Population Fund, United Nations Development Fund for Women, United Nations Trust Fund to End Violence against Women, United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Development Policy and Analysis Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Statistics Division and International Organization for Migration.

strengthen efforts to prosecute and punish all perpetrators, including public officials; and take into account the Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) when developing or implementing measures.

37. The human rights treaty bodies established under the core human rights treaties continued to address the issue of trafficking in persons, especially women and children, in their concluding observations on the reports submitted by States parties.[3] They have expressed concern about the persistence, growth, and the prevalence of trafficking in persons, as well as the lack of data and research. They have recommended that States strengthen efforts to effectively implement their laws, action plans and policies, and evaluate the impact of all measures adopted. In particular, the treaty bodies have recommended: strengthening of legislation and policies; allocation of adequate funding for the implementation of all measures undertaken; systematic compilation and analysis of data and research to fully assess the causes, consequences and the extent of trafficking in women and girls; effective investigation, prosecution and punishment of perpetrators and the application of penalties commensurate with the gravity of the acts, adequate identification of victims/survivors and their protection and access to support services, regardless of their cooperation with prosecution authorities; strengthening of cooperation between countries of origin, transit and destination; reinforcing prevention measures, including awareness-raising and addressing the root causes of trafficking, in particular the economic and social situation of women which make them vulnerable to trafficking; and training and capacity-building for law enforcement, border patrol, and immigration officials, as well as judicial personnel, parliamentarians, health professionals, social workers, media professionals, teachers and school administrators.

38. Special rapporteurs of the Human Rights Council continued to issue recommendations on trafficking in persons, especially women and children. For example, the Special Rapporteur on trafficking in persons, especially women and children,[4] recommended that States provide all trafficked persons access to specialized support and assistance, regardless of their immigration status, and ensure that residency status and access to services are not dependent on their participation in criminal proceedings. The Special Rapporteur also recommended that States ensure that measures adopted to prevent and combat trafficking do not have an adverse impact on the rights and dignity of the persons who have been trafficked. The Rapporteur further recommended the establishment of regional monitoring bodies which could regularly review the implementation of normative instruments and workplans and provide recommendations.[5]

39. On 13 May 2009, the General Assembly held an interactive thematic dialogue on taking collective action to end human trafficking. Informal consultations of the Assembly were held in March, April, May and June 2010 to consider the development of a United Nations global plan of action to combat trafficking in persons, as referred to in General Assembly resolution 64/178.

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[3] See http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/Pages/HumanRightsBodies.aspx.

[4] See A/HRC/10/16.

[5] See A/HRC/14/32.

B. Initiatives by United Nations entities, including activities in support of national efforts

1. Coordination efforts

40. The United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking facilitated by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC),[6] carries out a number of activities in the following areas: advocacy to help raise awareness of human trafficking; increase knowledge on human trafficking to feed into global, regional and national policymaking; coordination among international organizations and innovative public-private partnerships; and capacity development of stakeholders. The Inter-Agency Cooperation Group against Trafficking in Persons, chaired by UNODC,[7] held several meetings and continued its work to improve cooperation and coordination between United Nations entities and other international organizations and facilitate a holistic approach to preventing and combating trafficking in persons, including the protection of, and support for, victims/survivors of trafficking.

2. Studies and reports

41. Entities of the United Nations system continue to convene meetings and prepare reports and analysis to facilitate the work of intergovernmental and expert bodies and to contribute to the development of global responses to trafficking in women and girls. The UNODC 2009 global report on trafficking in persons compiled information on the state of the global response to human trafficking, including data on national legislative and enforcement activity. A joint United Nations-Council of Europe study on trafficking in organs, tissues and cells and trafficking in human beings for the purpose of the removal of organs was issued in 2009 and included a number of recommendations to address these phenomena.

42. Trafficking in women and girls was addressed in the report of the Secretary-General (prepared by the Division for the Advancement of Women of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the Secretariat) on the occasion of the 15-year review of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action,[8] in particular in the sections dealing with violence against women, which highlighted trends in national implementation, remaining gaps and challenges, and key areas for future action. Pursuant to Human Rights Council resolution 11/3 on trafficking in persons, especially women and children, OHCHR organized, in May 2010, a seminar aimed at identifying opportunities and challenges in the

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[6] The United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking involves entities of the United Nations system, regional organizations, civil society groups, media, academia and the private sector (see the Global Initiative's progress update, 2009, at: http://www.ungift.org/docs/ungift/pdf/about/UNGIFT_progress_report09.pdf).

[7] The Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children and Armed Conflict, OHCHR, the Division for the Advancement of Women, the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women, the United Nations Development Fund for Women, the United Nations Population Fund, the World Bank, INTERPOL and the International Organization for Migration participate in the Inter-Agency Cooperation Group against Trafficking in Persons.

[8] Report of the Secretary-General on Review of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, the outcomes of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly and its contribution to shaping a gender perspective towards the full realization of the Millennium Development Goals (E/2010/4-E/CN.6/2010/2).

development of rights-based responses to trafficking in persons, and a report on the proceedings and outcome will be submitted to the Council.

3. Data collection, research and support for policy development

43. Activities to enhance the availability of data, and analysis and research on trafficking in women and girls continue to be carried out by United Nations entities and other organizations. IOM maintains a global database on human trafficking, while the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) maintains an online human trafficking statistics database on Asia, both containing gender- and age-disaggregated data. IOM published a handbook on performance indicators for counter-trafficking projects in 2008, some of which pertain to women and girls, and is carrying out a review of methodological and ethical issues related to research on human trafficking. The Secretary-General's database on violence against women was launched in March 2009, in response to General Assembly resolution 61/143 on intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women. The database, managed by the Division for the Advancement of Women, is the first global one-stop site for information on measures undertaken by Member States to address all forms of violence against women, including trafficking in women and girls. Thus far, 87 Member States have provided inputs for the database.[9] The Division compiles an inventory of activities of the United Nations system on violence against women, including trafficking, which is updated twice yearly, as part of the activities of the Task Force on violence against women of the Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality.

44. Research initiatives, carried out or facilitated by United Nations entities at the national level, have informed legal and policy development. The United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) has supported research to enhance data collection on human trafficking, including gender-related data, as well as the conduct of assessment studies on trafficking in the Republic of Moldova and Maldives, respectively. In India, UNIFEM supported a ministerial forum on partnerships regarding trafficking, gender-based violence and HIV/AIDS, which resulted in the adoption of an accountability charter. UNESCO organized a policy dialogue on combating violence against women and trafficking in women and girls during a forum of Ministers of Women's Affairs from the Great Lakes region, with a view to developing or strengthening national action plans and creating monitoring mechanisms. UNESCO carried out research on the causes of trafficking in women and girls and disseminated good practices to policymakers in several African countries. Research has been carried out on trafficking risks for refugees in Thailand by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), while the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), jointly with members of the Global Migration Group, published a report on the vulnerability of migrant workers to being trafficked. In Mongolia, funding from the United Nations Trust Fund to End Violence against Women supported research on trafficking for sexual exploitation. UNIFEM, in partnership with UNODC, supported the formation of a South Asia anti-trafficking think tank, which serves as a dialogue mechanism to enhance national and regional coordination efforts to combat trafficking in women and children.

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[9] http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/v-database.htm.

4. Capacity-building

45. United Nations entities continued to support capacity-building measures in the area of trafficking in women and girls, for different stakeholders. Initiatives include: training of police in Nigeria by UNIFEM in collaboration with UNICEF, UNFPA, and national actors; UNHCR training of Government officials, employees of trafficking shelters, and others in Thailand; UNESCO-supported training for female radio reporters on domestic violence and human trafficking in the Plurinational State of Bolivia, and training of border guards and staff of the General Directorate for Refugees in Ecuador; and joint training by UNHCR and IOM for border police officers in Albania. In the Republic of Moldova, the United Nations Trust Fund supports civil society training efforts for professionals dealing with trafficking victims/survivors. In Ghana, UNIFEM helped establish a national committee mandated to coordinate measures to combat trafficking in women.

46. The development and dissemination of training tools and manuals form an integral part of United Nations entities' capacity-building efforts for stakeholders. UNODC has developed an international framework for action to implement the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, and updated its toolkit offering guidance, recommended resources, and promising practices for stakeholders to address human trafficking more effectively. Other training materials include an International Labour Organization and UNICEF training manual to fight trafficking in children for labour, sexual and other forms of exploitation; a UNODC and Inter-Parliamentary Union handbook for parliamentarians; an IOM manual for health providers and a handbook on direct assistance for victims/survivors of trafficking; a UNHCR and IOM joint framework document on developing standard operating procedures to facilitate the protection of trafficked persons; a UNIFEM handbook on access to justice for victims/survivors of trafficking in Nigeria; UNODC standard operating procedures in investigating crimes of commercial sexual exploitation in South Asia; a protocol for the repatriation of child victims/survivors of trafficking in Costa Rica, prepared with UNHCR support; and a United Nations inter-agency training manual for combating trafficking in women and children in the Greater Mekong subregion.

5. Prevention activities, including awareness-raising and advocacy

47. United Nations entities continue to engage in, and/or support, awareness-raising and advocacy campaigns and outreach activities to enhance understanding of trafficking in women and girls. In several African countries, UNESCO, UNHCR and IOM implemented awareness-raising campaigns on human trafficking, some of which targeted refugees and asylum-seekers. In Latin America, UNIFEM supported programmes involving traditional leaders in efforts to end violence against indigenous women, including internal trafficking. The Department of Public Information has carried out a range of awareness-raising and outreach activities through different forms of media, particularly on efforts of the United Nations to combat trafficking in women and girls. UNIFEM organized a regional meeting on trafficking with police officers, media representatives and lawyers in Nepal in 2008. UNESCO produced a documentary entitled "Women Trafficking", exploring social and cultural contexts of trafficking in women in South-East Europe, carried out research on the causes and social structures that lead to trafficking in women and girls, and undertakes projects to promote women's access to the labour market in

specific fields of cultural activities. Providing linguistically and culturally appropriate information on trafficking for women and girls of ethnic minorities in the Greater Mekong subregion is part of another UNESCO project.

6. Support for legislative development and implementation

48. United Nations entities continue to contribute to improvements in national legislation to combat trafficking in women and girls. For example, UNODC has drafted a model law on trafficking in persons to guide States in their implementation of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. UNIFEM supported the amendment of laws related to trafficking in persons in several countries, including Cambodia and Pakistan. In Rwanda, UNIFEM and the United Nations Development Programme assisted with the drafting of a law on violence against women, which includes provisions on human trafficking. UNHCR has advocated for asylum-sensitive anti-trafficking legislation in several countries, such as Armenia and Morocco. Based on the outcome of a 2008 expert group meeting on good practices in legislation to address violence against women, the Division for the Advancement of Women issued in 2009 a Handbook for legislation on violence against women.[10] The Handbook presents recommendations for the content of legislation, together with explanatory commentaries and good practice examples.

7. Services for victims/survivors of trafficking

49. Many United Nations entities continue to support different stakeholders, including civil society, in their endeavours to support victims/survivors of trafficking. For instance, UNODC, jointly with the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute, is implementing a programme of action against trafficking in young women and minors from Nigeria to Italy, including social reintegration activities aimed at economic independence. UNIFEM provides support for services for women victims/survivors of trafficking in Afghanistan, while the United Nations Trust Fund to End Violence against Women supports projects in Viet Nam that build special "intervention teams" to identify traffickers and trafficking victims/survivors. UNFPA continues to support reproductive health services and counselling to victims/survivors of trafficking, for example in the Philippines. In a number of countries, UNHCR has collaborated with international and non-governmental organizations to create referral mechanisms for victims/survivors of trafficking, while the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East has developed referral systems to increase access to services for women and girls victims/survivors of violence, including trafficking. In India, UNIFEM has a project, aiming to ensure that the rights of victims/survivors of trafficking are protected during legal proceedings.

8. Private sector

50. United Nations entities have supported some partnerships with private sector actors. For example, in India, IOM has initiated a pilot project with the private sector and local Government to rehabilitate women victims/survivors of trafficking, by creating opportunities for them. The United Nations Trust Fund to End Violence

[10] http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/vaw/v-handbook.htm.

against Women supports hotel owners in Viet Nam to distribute information on trafficking in women and girls. In Côte d'Ivoire, UNHCR supported civil society to reach an informal agreement with a company to stop recruiting children for work in palm farms, and to convince parents to send their children to school.

IV. Conclusions and recommendations

51. **Numerous actions have been taken at all levels to prevent and address trafficking in persons, many of which focus on trafficking in women and girls. Adherence to relevant international instruments continues to increase. Legal, policy and institutional frameworks have been strengthened, and efforts aimed at bilateral and multilateral cooperation have been reinforced. Despite these developments, trafficking in women and girls persists, including for sexual exploitation, forced labour and forced marriage. Future action should focus on ensuring a comprehensive, coordinated, cohesive and gender-sensitive approach among all stakeholders; adequate funding; and the full implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all measures taken. Strategic partnerships among Government actors, non-governmental organizations, the private sector and other stakeholders are vital.**

52. **Many States have carried out legal reform, including the introduction of specific criminal offences of human trafficking; the inclusion of aggravating circumstances in sentencing provisions, especially when the victim is a child; increased penalties for traffickers; and expanded protection and support for victims/survivors. Some States have adopted specific laws against trafficking in children. Comprehensive anti-trafficking acts that are broad in scope, covering trafficking offences and a range of other measures, including protection and support for victims/survivors, prevention measures, and the establishment of national coordination bodies, are a good practice that should be replicated. States should ensure that all forms of trafficking in persons of all ages are criminalized with sentences that are commensurate with other serious crimes, including enhanced penalties when the victim is a child. Legal reforms should continue in order to ensure that an adequate legal framework is in place to prevent and address trafficking in women and girls and protect the human rights of all victims/survivors.**

53. **Existing and new laws are often ineffectively enforced and/or not well understood by authorities. Prosecution rates continue to be low. Efforts should be reinforced to ensure the effective and gender sensitive enforcement of anti-trafficking legislation. Systematic training should be conducted for law enforcement officials, the judiciary and other relevant personnel on trafficking in women and girls, the protection of the human rights of trafficking victims/survivors, and responsibilities under new legislation. Accountability mechanisms should be in place, such as penalties for non-compliance with the law. Efforts should be strengthened to ensure that all perpetrators at all levels, including public officials, are prosecuted and receive appropriate sentences. Institutional mechanisms to monitor implementation of the law are critical.**

54. **States have adopted dedicated plans or strategies on trafficking in persons, many of which contain specific measures to address trafficking in women and/or children. States should ensure that all anti-trafficking plans**

include provisions on women and girls and that such plans are comprehensive and multidisciplinary in scope and incorporate measurable goals and timetables, as well as monitoring and impact assessment measures, and provide for coordination among all stakeholders. Coordination at the national level should be reinforced, in particular through dedicated coordination mechanisms. States should continue to conclude and implement bilateral, regional and multilateral agreements, to ensure effective action in all areas, including law enforcement and prosecution, prevention, victim support and assistance, and exchange of data, information and good practices in combating trafficking in women and girls.

55. While States have carried out educational programmes, awareness-raising campaigns and other initiatives, there is a need to reinforce efforts and resources in the area of prevention. Political commitment at all levels to eliminate trafficking in women and girls is critical. Prevention efforts must be systematic and sustained, and address the root causes and factors that put women and girls at risk, including social and economic marginalization, and violence and discrimination against women. Measures must be put in place to discourage employer and consumer demand that lead to trafficking in women and girls. Educational programmes and information and awareness campaigns should be expanded and cover the promotion of women's human rights, gender equality, and healthy relationships; the risks and dangers of human trafficking; and the availability of services and support for victims/survivors and other anti-trafficking measures. Such awareness programmes should be multilingual, where appropriate, and directed at the general population and at groups that are at risk. Collaboration with the private sector and the media should be intensified, including with respect to the adoption by different industries of self-regulatory mechanisms and codes of conduct, awareness-raising, and the use of new technologies by traffickers.

56. Women trafficking victims/survivors require timely access to specialized support services, including legal, psychological, medical and social assistance; access to shelters; vocational training and alternative employment programmes; and residence permits or extended stays in third countries. Many countries have established or enhanced support systems for trafficking victims/survivors, especially women and children. These efforts should be reinforced to ensure that trafficking victims/survivors are correctly identified and their rights protected, and that actions taken do not lead to their further stigmatization or marginalization. Measures of protection and support should be accessible to all victims/survivors and not be made contingent on a victim's ability or willingness to assist in criminal proceedings. States should ensure that victims/survivors are informed about their rights and available recourse, empowered to claim those rights, and be given sufficient time to recover from the trauma they have suffered. Greater efforts are needed to ensure that victims/survivors are protected from prosecution for illegal migration, labour law violations or other acts and receive protection in connection with criminal proceedings, including witness-protection programmes. Referral mechanisms/procedures should be reinforced, and all persons coming into contact with trafficking victims/survivors should be systematically trained to ensure they have the capacity to assist such victims/survivors with full respect for their human rights.

57. **Despite increased efforts to improve the knowledge base on the scope and nature of trafficking in women and girls, data continues to be unreliable and deficient. The availability of more and better quality data, including statistics, is indispensable in order to undertake effective legislative and policy reforms, monitor trends, and assess the impact of measures taken. States should continue and strengthen their efforts to improve the collection of data on trafficking in women and girls. Statistical data should be disaggregated by sex, race, age, ethnicity and other relevant characteristics. Methodologies of data collection should be enhanced and harmonized, and qualitative research intensified.**

United Nations A/65/210

General Assembly

Distr.: General
2 August 2010

Original: English

Sixty-fifth session
Item 12 of the provisional agenda*
2001-2010: Decade to Roll Back Malaria in Developing Countries, Particularly in Africa

2001-2010: Decade to Roll Back Malaria in Developing Countries, Particularly in Africa

Note by the Secretary-General

The Secretary-General has the honour to transmit to the General Assembly the report prepared by the World Health Organization pursuant to Assembly resolution 64/79.

* A/65/150.

10-47111 (E) 270810

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Report of the World Health Organization entitled "2001-2010: Decade to Roll Back Malaria in Developing Countries, Particularly in Africa"

Summary

The present report highlights the progress made in meeting the goals concerning malaria control to be achieved by 2010 in the context of General Assembly resolution 62/180. It draws on the following recent progress reports: *World Malaria Report 2009* (2009), produced by the World Health Organization (WHO); *Malaria Funding and Resource Utilization: The First Decade of Roll Back Malaria* (United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), WHO and Programme for Appropriate Technology in Health (PATH), 2010); *World Malaria Day 2010: Africa Update* (UNICEF and PATH, 2010); and *Saving Lives with Malaria Control: Counting Down to the Millennium Development Goals* (Tulane University, Johns Hopkins University, PATH and WHO, 2010), produced by the Roll Back Malaria Partnership. Data from malaria-endemic countries and other Roll Back Malaria partners, including the Alliance for Malaria Prevention, are also used. The report concludes with recommendations for the consideration of the Assembly.

Over the past decade, malaria control efforts have attracted considerable political attention and financial support at the international, regional and country levels. At the African Summit to Roll Back Malaria, held in Abuja in 2000, African heads of State pledged to "halve the malaria mortality for Africa's people by 2010, through implementing strategies and actions for Roll Back Malaria". World leaders put forth the challenge "have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases" as a target of one of the eight Millennium Development Goals. In early 2008, Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon appointed a Special Envoy for Malaria to mobilize global support for action on the disease. Following the Secretary-General's call for universal coverage, and in response to a growing international push for a long-term commitment to malaria control, the malaria community collectively developed the Global Malaria Action Plan. The objectives of the plan are to accelerate and sustain malaria control efforts, eliminating the disease where possible, and to ensure investment in research aimed at new tools that would permit the eradication of the disease in the long term. Reinforced by the Special Envoy for Malaria and the recently established African Leaders Malaria Alliance, malaria control continues to be a high priority on the global development agenda in 2010.

In response to global advocacy efforts, international funding commitments for malaria control increased from less than $0.2 billion in 2000 to $1.6 billion in 2009, owing largely to the establishment of the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria and greater commitments by the President's Malaria Initiative of the United States of America, the World Bank and other agencies. This increase in funding has resulted in a dramatic scale-up of malaria control interventions in many settings and has led to measurable reductions in the malaria burden.

An increased percentage of African households (31 per cent) were estimated to own at least one insecticide-treated net in 2008 as compared with the number in 2006 (17 per cent), and more children under 5 years of age used such a net in 2008 (24 per

cent) than in previous years. Household ownership of insecticide-treated nets has reached more than 50 per cent in 13 high-burden African countries. The percentage of children using a net is below the World Health Assembly target of 80 per cent, primarily because of low net ownership in several large African countries. Resources for further scale-up are now being made available, with more than 88 million nets delivered in 2009 and a further 70 million in the first half of 2010.

The use of artemisinin combination therapies has increased compared with 2006 but remains very low in most African countries; in 11 of the 13 countries surveyed during the period 2007-2008, fewer than 15 per cent of children under 5 years of age with a history of fever had received an artemisinin combination therapy, well below the World Health Assembly target of 80 per cent. That figure provides an artificially low estimate of appropriate treatment, as the majority of children with fever did not receive a diagnostic test to confirm malaria. As of 2008, approximately 22 per cent of suspected malaria cases in Africa were confirmed through a diagnostic test.

In high-burden African countries that have achieved high coverage of their populations with bed nets and treatment programmes, recorded cases of and deaths due to malaria have fallen by 50 per cent. This suggests that the targets for Millennium Development Goal 6, aimed at reversing the incidence of malaria, can be met if there is adequate coverage with key interventions. While these results were seen in some island settings (Sao Tome and Principe and Zanzibar in the United Republic of Tanzania), they were also seen in countries on the African mainland (including Eritrea, Rwanda and Zambia). Evidence from Sao Tome and Principe, Zambia and Zanzibar suggests that large decreases in malaria cases and deaths have been mirrored by steep declines in all-cause deaths among children less than 5 years of age, indicating that intensive malaria control efforts will help many African countries to reach a two-thirds reduction in child mortality by 2015, in accordance with Millennium Development Goal 4.

A recent analysis of malaria control scale-up in 35 African countries revealed that more than 560,000 lives had been saved between 2000 and 2009, with nearly three quarters of that number saved since 2006. Overall, more than one third of the 108 malarious countries documented reductions of more than 50 per cent in confirmed malaria cases in 2008 as compared with 2000 (9 African countries and 29 outside Africa), although the number of cases fell least in the countries with the highest incidence rates. Ten countries are implementing nationwide elimination programmes, and eight countries are in the pre-elimination phase. Another eight countries have interrupted transmission and are at the stage of preventing the reintroduction of malaria. In May 2010, Morocco was certified by WHO as free of malaria, which reduced to 107 the number of malaria-endemic countries.

Parasite resistance to antimalarial medicines and mosquito resistance to insecticides pose major threats to the achievement of global malaria control. The first evidence of artemisinin resistance was reported in western Cambodia in 2008. A rapid containment response that involves detecting and treating all cases in target areas and increasing bed-net coverage of the population at risk has been implemented since January 2009. Early results suggest that the artemisinin-resistant strain of *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria has almost disappeared. However, the marketing of artemisinin monotherapies continues in many countries, despite the appeal made by WHO for a halt to their use, and remains a major threat to the useful therapeutic life of artemisinin combination therapies.

Disbursements to malaria-endemic countries, which totalled nearly $1.5 billion in 2009, still fall short of the $5 billion required annually to ensure high coverage and maximal impact worldwide. The achievement of Millennium Development Goals will require not only adequate financial resources, but also the strengthening of health systems capable of delivering vector control interventions, providing diagnostics for the parasitologic confirmation of malaria alongside treatment with artemisinin combination therapies, and developing of routine surveillance systems for malaria, for parasite resistance to antimalarial medicines and for mosquito resistance to insecticides.

I. Background and context

1. In 2008, there were an estimated 243 million cases of malaria (5th to 95th centiles, 190 million to 311 million) worldwide. The vast majority of cases (85 per cent) were in the WHO African Region, followed by the South-East Asia Region (8 per cent) and the Eastern Mediterranean Region (4 per cent). There were an estimated 863,000 deaths (5th to 95th centiles, 708,000 to 1.003 million) in 2008, of which 91 per cent were in the African Region, followed by the Eastern Mediterranean Region (6 per cent) and the South East Asia Region (3 per cent).

2. Malaria is a major killer of African children, so control of malaria will make a direct contribution to meeting the Millennium Development Goal 4 target of reducing under-5 mortality by two thirds by 2015. Malaria control will also contribute to meeting the Millennium Development Goal 5 target of reducing maternal mortality.

3. In 2007, the United Nations (through the Millennium Development Goals), the World Health Assembly and the Roll Back Malaria Partnership had consistent goals concerning intervention coverage and impact for 2010 and 2015. Coverage is intended to reach more than 80 per cent by 2010, with four key interventions: insecticide-treated nets for people at risk, appropriate antimalarial medicines for patients with probable or confirmed malaria, indoor residual spraying for targeted households at risk, and intermittent preventive treatment for pregnant women (in moderate- to high-transmission settings). The global impact targets are reductions in the number of malaria cases and deaths per capita by 50 per cent or more between 2000 and 2010 and by 75 per cent or more between 2000 and 2015.

4. On World Malaria Day in 2008, the Secretary-General called for efforts to bring an end to malaria deaths by ensuring universal coverage of malaria control interventions by the end of 2010. Consequently, the global malaria community established three additional targets as part of the Global Malaria Action Plan, launched by the Roll Back Malaria Partnership in September 2008. The first is to reduce the global number of malaria deaths to near-zero preventable deaths by 2015. This target is more ambitious than the previous target of a 75 per cent reduction in the number of malaria deaths by 2015. The second is to eliminate malaria in 8 to 10 countries by 2015 and afterwards in all countries that are in the pre-elimination phase today (2008). The third target is: "In the long term, eradicate malaria worldwide by reducing the global incidence to zero through progressive elimination in countries."

II. Policies and strategies for malaria control

5. The two most powerful and most broadly applied interventions aimed at malaria prevention through mosquito control are long-lasting insecticide-treated nets and indoor residual spraying. Because high coverage rates are needed in order to realize the full potential of either nets or spraying, WHO recommends "universal coverage" of people at risk for malaria in areas targeted for malaria prevention. In the case of long-lasting insecticide-treated nets, this means that all people at risk, regardless of age or gender, in areas targeted for malaria prevention should be provided with nets.

6. WHO recommends that long-lasting insecticide-treated nets be either delivered free of charge or made available at highly subsidized prices. Cost should not be a

barrier to their availability to all people at risk for malaria, especially those at highest risk for adverse outcomes as a result of the disease, such as young children and pregnant women.

7. Universal coverage with long-lasting insecticide-treated nets can be achieved and maintained by combining distribution through initial rapid coverage with periodic mass campaigns complemented by routine delivery to pregnant women and infants at antenatal and children's clinics by immunization contacts.

8. Only nets recommended by the WHO Pesticide Evaluation Scheme should be procured by national malaria control programmes and partners for malaria control. Such nets are designed to maintain their biological efficacy against vector mosquitoes for at least three years in the field under recommended conditions of use, obviating the need for regular insecticide treatment.

9. Twelve insecticides belonging to four chemical classes are currently recommended by the Scheme for indoor residual spraying. Dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT) has comparatively long residual efficacy (more than six months) against malaria vectors and plays an important role in the management of vector resistance. Countries can use DDT for indoor residual spraying for as long as necessary and in the quantities needed, provided that the guidelines and recommendations of WHO and the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants are complied with and until locally appropriate, cost-effective alternatives are available for a sustainable transition away from the use of DDT.

10. Resistance to insecticides, especially pyrethroids, poses an urgent and growing threat to the sustainability of current methods of vector control. Monitoring and managing resistance to the insecticides used in both long-lasting insecticide-treated nets and indoor residual spraying are vital.

11. The early and effective treatment of malaria reduces morbidity, prevents death and reduces the reservoir of infection, leading to successful malaria control. Updated WHO guidelines for the treatment of malaria were released in 2010.

12. For all patients with suspected malaria, prompt parasitologic confirmation (within two hours of a patient's presenting) through microscopy or a rapid diagnostic test is recommended before treatment is begun. Treatment based solely on clinical suspicion should be considered only when a parasitologic diagnosis is not possible. The parasitologic confirmation of malaria before treatment is becoming increasingly important, because as transmission falls, so does the proportion of fevers attributable to malaria. When all cases of fever are treated as malaria, not only are artemisinin combination therapies overused, but appropriate care is not provided to people with fever caused by other diseases. Expanded use of rapid diagnostic tests will help to reduce the overdiagnosis of malaria and the overuse of antimalarial medicines.

13. Confirmed cases of *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria without complications should be treated with an artemisinin combination therapy, and *Plasmodium vivax* malaria should be treated with chloroquine where it is effective, or with an appropriate artemisinin combination therapy in areas where *Plasmodium vivax* is resistant to chloroquine. Treatment of *Plasmodium vivax* should be combined with 14 days of primaquine to prevent relapse, after confirming that the patient does not have glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency.

14. Artemisinin combination therapies not only are efficacious, but also help to prevent the emergence and spread of drug-resistant *Plasmodium*. Five such therapies are currently recommended for use because of their safety and efficacy: artemether–lumefantrine, artesunate–amodiaquine, artesunate–mefloquine, artesunate–sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine and dihydroartemisinin–piperaquine. The choice of therapy should be based on the efficacy of the combination in the country or area of intended use.

15. Intermittent preventive treatment with sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine, administered two to three times during the second and third trimesters of pregnancy during antenatal care visits, is recommended for pregnant women in areas of high transmission. Intermittent preventive treatment in infants, using a single dose of sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine administered three times during the first year of life at routine Expanded Programme on Immunization visits, is recommended for areas of high transmission where sulfadoxine-pyrimethamine remains effective as a preventive medicine.

16. Parasite resistance has rendered previously used antimalarial medicines ineffective in most parts of the world, threatening malaria control. The highly effective artemisinin derivatives and their partner drugs are vulnerable to the same risk. WHO recommends that oral artemisinin-based monotherapies be withdrawn from the market and replaced with artemisinin combination therapies.

III. Financing of malaria control

17. Advocacy efforts at the global, regional and national levels over the course of the past 10 years spurred an upsurge in terms of political and financial commitments to malaria control efforts.

18. Financial commitments to malaria control on the part of external agencies increased fivefold from approximately $0.3 billion per year in 2003 to $1.6 billion in 2009, with a particularly large increase in 2009. While commitments are critical, it is the international disbursements for malaria to malaria-endemic countries that determine progress. Such disbursements increased from $35 million in 2000 to more than $1 billion in 2008 and are estimated to have risen to $1.5 billion in 2009, a forty-fold increase.

19. The Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria accounted for 66 per cent of all external funds disbursed to malaria-endemic countries between 2000 and 2007, or $2.6 billion. The United States Agency for International Development, including the President's Malaria Initiative, was second to the Global Fund as a source of funds from 2000 to 2007, increasing its malaria funding by a factor of 19, from $10 million in 2000 to $188 million in 2007. The United Kingdom Department for International Development ranked third, increasing its contributions from $2 million in 2000 to $19 million in 2007.

20. Between 2000 and 2007, the Global Fund was the dominant source of external finance in all regions except South-East Asia, where World Bank funding accounted for 55 per cent of disbursements by external agencies. In the European Region, the Global Fund accounted for 96 per cent of disbursements by external agencies between 2000 and 2007; in the Eastern Mediterranean Region, it accounted for 94 per cent, and in the Region of the Americas, it accounted for 90 per cent. In the African Region, Global Fund support accounted for 76 per cent of external support,

compared with 12 per cent for the Department for International Development, 3 per cent for the United States Agency for International Development, 2 per cent for the World Bank and 1 per cent for Japan.

21. Between 2000 and 2007, disbursements by external agencies for malaria increased by a factor of 28 in the WHO African Region, a factor of 27 in the Eastern Mediterranean Region (since 2003), a factor of 18 in the European Region, a factor of 13 in the Western Pacific Region and a factor of 8 in the Region of the Americas. Only the South-East Asia Region failed to register a substantial increase in external assistance, with the 2007 level only 1.4 times the amount seen in 2000.

22. The number of countries receiving external assistance for malaria increased from 29 in 2000 to 76 (out of a total of 109 malaria-endemic countries) in 2007, with the largest increase seen in Africa. Only two malaria-endemic sub-Saharan African countries did not receive external assistance: Botswana and Chad.

23. In general, less populous countries (for example, Suriname, Sao Tome and Principe, and Eritrea) received more funds per capita than more populous countries (such as Pakistan, China and India). Part of the reason for the apparently low levels of disbursement to the more populous countries could be that populations at risk are estimated imprecisely and are subject to overestimation. Therefore, while the observation that more populous countries received lower levels of external financing is of concern, the imprecision in defining at-risk populations in such countries should be taken into account, as should other factors that determine the need for external financing, such as the availability of domestic funds.

24. Information on domestic financing for malaria is less complete. Such financing appears to have increased in a range of countries across all regions, but there seems to have been a downward trend from 2007 to 2008 in two regions — the African and Eastern Mediterranean regions — and a steady decline between 2005 and 2008 in the South-East Asia Region. Improvements in the information available with regard to domestic financing for malaria would allow for a more accurate and complete picture of global malaria financing.

25. Government financing frequently covers the fixed costs of operating malaria programmes, including costs related to human resources and programme management (inter alia, information systems, planning workshops and supervision). The expenditures of external agencies such as the Global Fund and the President's Malaria Initiative are more often directed to the financing of variable costs, such as those for the provision and distribution of commodities.

26. While the total amount of funds available for malaria control has increased to an unprecedented level, it is still lower than the annual amount that, according to the Global Malaria Action Plan, would be needed to successfully control malaria globally: between $5.0 billion and $6.2 billion per year between 2009 and 2015. Even if the high level of malaria commitments for 2009 ($1.5 billion) is translated into disbursements and programme expenditures, and is complemented by equal levels of Government and private-sector funding,[1] the total amount of funds available for malaria control would be approximately $3 billion, or less than 60 per cent of the projected requirements.

[1] The Global Malaria Action Plan estimated Government and household financing to be approximately equal to external financing in 2007.

IV. Programme implementation: vector control

27. In 2008, 23 countries in the African Region and 35 outside it had adopted the WHO recommendation that bed nets be provided for all age groups at risk for malaria, not only for women and children. This represented an increase of 13 countries since 2007.

28. According to data provided by the Alliance for Malaria Prevention of the Roll Back Malaria Partnership, the number of long-lasting insecticide-treated nets delivered to sub-Saharan African countries rose from 5.6 million in 2004 to 88.5 million in 2009. The number of insecticide-treated nets would be sufficient to cover approximately 55 per cent of the population at risk for malaria in sub-Saharan Africa in 2009, assuming two people can sleep under a net and that nets have a lifespan of three years.

29. A further 70 million insecticide-treated nets were delivered in the first half of 2010. Some large countries with lower levels of funding are now beginning to make substantial progress. Nigeria had delivered 25 million nets by mid-2010 and is on track to deliver 64 million by early in 2011, which will make its programme the single largest scale-up effort to reach the target of universal coverage by the end of 2010.

30. Countries with higher levels of external assistance per capita (for example, Sao Tome and Principe and Djibouti) were able to procure more nets per person and to achieve higher coverage than others with lower funding ratios (including Côte d'Ivoire and Cameroon).

31. On the basis of data from household surveys and information on net procurement, it is estimated that an increased percentage of African households (31 per cent) owned at least one insecticide-treated net in 2008 as compared with 2006 (17 per cent) and that more children under 5 years of age used a net in 2008 (24 per cent) than in previous years. These weighted averages are affected by low net ownership levels in several large African countries, for which scale-up resources are only now being made available; household net ownership has reached more than 50 per cent in 13 high-burden African countries.

32. While some countries have achieved remarkable equity in terms of ownership of insecticide-treated nets among rural and urban households as well as the poorest and richest households, many countries have not done so. Equity in coverage is due largely to widespread, free net distribution campaigns targeting areas of intense malaria transmission.

33. In 2008, 44 countries, including 19 in the African Region, reported having implemented indoor residual spraying. In the African Region, the number of persons protected by spraying more than doubled between 2006 and 2008, from 15 million to 59 million. This represented 9 per cent of the at-risk population. Seven countries protected more than 10 per cent of their at-risk populations in 2008: Botswana (38 per cent), Equatorial Guinea (56 per cent), Ethiopia (51 per cent), Madagascar (32 per cent), Mozambique (30 per cent), Namibia (16 per cent) and Zambia (47 per cent).

34. In regions other than Africa, the coverage of interventions is more difficult to estimate. Interventions such as indoor residual spraying and insecticide-treated nets are often implemented in a focalized way, targeting hard-to-reach or mobile populations that are most at risk (such as migrants, miners and forest workers)

rather than general populations. Household surveys are less useful in such contexts and are conducted less frequently.

35. Analysis suggests that the number of insecticide-treated nets distributed to populations at risk was relatively high (sufficient to cover more than 20 per cent of the population, assuming nets are used by two people and have a lifespan of three years) in Suriname (58 per cent), Malaysia (54 per cent), the Sudan (55 per cent), Vanuatu (41 per cent), the Lao People's Democratic Republic (37 per cent), Bangladesh (31 per cent), Papua New Guinea (30 per cent), Solomon Islands (25 per cent), Bhutan (23 per cent), Cambodia (23 per cent), China (23 per cent) and Tajikistan (19 per cent). The coverage of the high-risk population with indoor residual spraying was more than 50 per cent in Tajikistan, Bhutan and Malaysia. The Sudan, Pakistan, Solomon Islands, the Philippines and India had spraying coverage of between 20 and 40 per cent.

36. Household surveys indicate that ownership of insecticide-treated nets was low (less than 20 per cent of households) in Djibouti, Somalia and the Sudan. They suggest that 80 per cent of children under 5 sleep under a mosquito net in Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Viet Nam, but that many fewer in those countries sleep under an insecticide-treated net (4 per cent, 41 per cent and 13 per cent, respectively). The percentage of children under 5 sleeping under an insecticide-treated net was 17 per cent in Papua New Guinea in 2006 and 41 per cent in Solomon Islands in 2007.

V. Programme implementation: diagnosis

37. In 2008, 20 of 45 malaria-endemic countries in the WHO African Region and 51 of 64 countries outside it reported having a policy of the parasitologic testing of suspected malaria cases among persons of all ages.

38. Of suspected malaria cases attending public health facilities in 35 high-burden countries in the African Region in 2008, 22 per cent received a test, reflecting a twofold increase since 2006. Ten countries tested more than 50 per cent of reported suspected cases in 2008.

39. The number of rapid diagnostic tests delivered increased rapidly in 2007 and 2008 from close to zero in 2005. However, the total number of tests distributed in 2008 covered only 13 per cent of the total number of suspected malaria cases reported, indicating a continuing gap in malaria diagnostic capacity.

40. A wide range of rapid diagnostic test brands are available on the market, and products differ in their performance. In addition, test performance is affected by extremes of heat and humidity, conditions that frequently prevail in the field. In order to ensure the procurement of high-quality rapid diagnostic tests, countries are advised to procure products that have demonstrated good performance in the WHO Rapid Diagnostic Test Evaluation Programme. The Programme, launched in 2006 in collaboration with the Foundation for Innovative New Diagnostics and the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, assesses and reports on the performance of rapid diagnostic test products and serves as a guide for countries and procurement agencies in selecting high-quality tests. The results of two rounds of performance testing are now available. Performance testing is also aimed at helping manufacturers to improve the quality of their products. In addition, since the

performance of various production lots of individual products is likely to vary over time, it is recommended that all lots of procured products be checked for quality through lot testing prior to large-scale deployment in the field and that a process for the monitoring of rapid diagnostic test performance in the field be put in place. The Rapid Diagnostic Test Evaluation Programme provides the service of lot testing in one of three regional centres for the assessment of procured rapid diagnostic tests.

VI. Programme implementation: treatment

41. By 2009, 78 of the 83 *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria-endemic countries and territories had adopted artemisinin combination therapies for use as part of their national drug policies.

42. The continued use of oral artemisinin-based monotherapy medicines is a major factor contributing to the development of parasite resistance. Despite the appeal made by WHO for a halt in the use of these medicines (World Health Assembly resolution 60.18, endorsed by all WHO member States in May 2007), their production continues, and many countries have not yet withdrawn them from their markets. Since 2005, WHO has identified 76 pharmaceutical companies involved in the production and marketing of oral artemisinin-based monotherapy medicines. By July 2010, only 36 — mainly companies that had a significant market share in public-sector procurement funded by international agencies — had ceased their production. However, smaller companies targeting private-sector markets are more likely to ignore the WHO appeal.

43. Major reasons for the limited success in the phasing-out of oral artemisinin-based monotherapies include the poor regulation of pharmaceutical markets in malaria-endemic countries. As of July 2010, of the 78 national regulatory authorities of *Plasmodium falciparum*-endemic countries, 28 had not taken regulatory steps to withdraw such therapies from their markets. Most of those countries are located in the WHO African Region (16 national regulatory authorities), followed by the South-East Asia Region (5) and the Western Pacific Region (3). Greater assistance to national drug regulatory authorities is required in order to phase out oral artemisinin-based medicines.

44. The procurement of artemisinin combination therapies for the public sector continues to increase, rising from more than 76 million treatment courses in 2006 to more than 157 million in 2009.

45. Fourteen of the 35 high-burden countries in Africa reported distributing enough artemisinin combination therapies to treat at least 50 per cent of reported malaria cases in the public sector; five countries reported distributing a sufficient number of doses to treat all reported malaria cases in 2008. In most relevant countries outside Africa, access to first-line treatment was sufficient to cover all reported confirmed malaria cases. In all regions except South-east Asia, more than two treatment courses per confirmed case were provided.

46. The percentage of children with fever receiving an antimalarial medicine ranged from 10 per cent (Ethiopia, 2007) to 63 per cent (Gambia, 2006), with a weighted average of 32 per cent, according to household survey data from the period 2006-2008. The percentage of children with fever who received an artemisinin combination therapy ranged from zero (several countries, 2006) to

22 per cent (mainland United Republic of Tanzania, 2008), with an average of 16 per cent. Slightly higher rates of artemisinin combination therapy use were seen in 2008 than in 2006. This probably reflects increased distribution of artemisinin combination therapies but it may also be due in part to the fact that different countries were represented in the data collected by the household surveys during those two years.

47. The low uptake of artemisinin combination therapies in the treatment of febrile children may be due to a lack of availability at health facilities, high prices in the private sector and limited access to care (for example, a limited number of community care programmes). In some cases, it may also be due to improved access to parasitologic confirmation of malaria, so that only confirmed cases are provided with treatment.

48. A financing mechanism, the Affordable Medicine Facility for Malaria, is being piloted to increase access to artemisinin combination therapies and to displace cheaper but ineffective medicines and monotherapies that promote drug resistance. Managed by the Global Fund, the programme is being piloted in eight countries.

49. The first documented evidence of *Plasmodium falciparum* resistance to artemisinin in western Cambodia was published in 2008. A project aimed at curbing the spread of artemisinin-resistant strains was begun on the Thailand-Cambodia border in January 2009. Coordinated by WHO, with support from the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, the Global Fund and the United States Agency for International Development, the project is an intensive effort that includes interventions to detect and treat all cases in target areas, and to increase bednet coverage of the population at risk. Early in 2010, the results of the population screening programme in 20 high-risk villages indicated that the artemisinin-resistant strain of *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria had almost disappeared. Data from the first seven villages in which the programme was implemented showed that only two cases had been detected among the 2,800 persons screened. Cambodia national surveillance data have also confirmed that the number of cases of *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria in the target areas has fallen dramatically.

VII. Preventive treatment

50. Thirty-five countries in the African Region and three in the Eastern Mediterranean Region have adopted and are implementing intermittent preventive treatment of malaria for pregnant women. Papua New Guinea has also adopted a policy aimed at intermittent preventive therapy. Data on such therapy for pregnant women, collected in surveys during the period 2007-2008, were available for nine countries with a total population of 217 million. In 2007-2008, the percentage of women who received two doses of treatment during pregnancy ranged from 3 per cent in Angola to 66 per cent in Zambia; the weighted average was 20 per cent.

VIII. Impact of control programmes in the WHO African Region

51. Among high-burden African countries that achieved high coverage of their populations with bednets and treatment programmes, reductions of more than 50 per cent in the number of reported malaria cases and deaths were observed in four

countries (Eritrea, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe and Zambia) and one area (Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania). In Sao Tome and Principe and Zanzibar, reductions in the number of malaria cases and deaths were observed after two to three years of the widespread use of indoor residual spraying, long-lasting insecticide-treated nets and artemisinin combination therapies. In Rwanda, a reduction was observed only after the use of long-lasting insecticide-treated nets and artemisinin combination therapies.

52. The numbers of inpatient deaths resulting from all causes decreased by 53 per cent in Sao Tome and Principe and by 57 per cent on the islands of Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania, after intensive malaria control efforts. In Zambia, the all-cause child mortality rates fell by 35 per cent, as measured both by the number of deaths recorded in health facilities and by the under-5 mortality rate determined through the 2007 Demographic and Health Survey. Those trends, if confirmed in non-island countries, suggest that intensive malaria control could help many African countries to reach a two-thirds reduction in child mortality by 2015, in accordance with Millennium Development Goal 4.

53. Similar impacts may have been felt in other high-burden African countries, but changes in morbidity and mortality have not become evident, largely because disease surveillance systems are not developed sufficiently to detect changes. On the basis of the number of insecticide-treated nets distributed to 35 African countries, it is estimated that more than 560,000 lives were saved between 2000 and 2009, with most of that number saved since 2006.

54. Five of the six low-transmission African countries (Botswana, Cape Verde, Namibia, South Africa and Swaziland) saw decreases of more than 50 per cent in the number of confirmed malaria cases and reported malaria deaths between 2000 and 2008. The decrease in cases appears to have levelled off, remaining at between 10 and 25 per cent of the numbers seen in 2000. Each of these countries shows evidence of wide-scale malaria programme activity, but a drought affecting Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe between 2001 and 2003 may also have contributed to initial decreases. It is not possible to determine whether the number of cases is increasing, stable or decreasing in the other low-transmission country, Zimbabwe, but preventive activities appeared to cover more than 50 per cent of the high-risk population in 2008.

IX. Impact of control programmes in other WHO regions

55. The number of cases reported in the Region of the Americas decreased from 1.14 million in 2000 to 557,000 in 2008. Reductions of more than 50 per cent were reported in 11 countries (Argentina, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guyana, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Suriname). Four of those countries (Argentina, El Salvador, Mexico and Paraguay) were in the elimination or pre-elimination phase, with active follow-up of suspected cases, while four others (Guyana, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Suriname) showed evidence of control activities being implemented extensively for populations at risk of malaria. Three of those countries (Guyana, Nicaragua and Suriname) also had high annual blood examination rates, which indicate good access to malaria treatment. Five countries (Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Panama and Peru) reported fluctuations in the number of cases between 2000 and 2008, which may be

associated with reductions in recent years. Brazil had greatly expanded the availability of diagnosis and treatment through a network of more than 40,000 health workers who reached individual households. The number of confirmed cases in French Guiana showed little change between 2000 and 2008. Three countries (the Dominican Republic, Haiti and Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)) reported increased numbers of cases between 2000 and 2008, although the increase in Haiti was associated with an increased annual blood examination rate. No information was provided by Belize. In summary, eight countries (Argentina, El Salvador, Guatemala, Guyana, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay and Suriname) showed a decrease in the number of cases of more than 50 per cent, which is associated with intense malaria programme activity.

56. Reductions of more than 50 per cent in the number of reported cases between 2000 and 2008 were seen in five countries in the South-East Asia Region (Bhutan, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Nepal, Sri Lanka and Thailand). Reductions of more than 25 per cent but less than 50 per cent were seen in one country (India). There was evidence of the wide-scale implementation of antimalarial interventions in two countries that showed decreases in the number of cases (Bhutan and Thailand), although the decrease in Thailand levelled off in 2006 as the number of persons potentially reached by malaria prevention programmes decreased. Two countries at the pre-elimination stage (the Democratic People's Republic of Korea and Sri Lanka) actively followed-up on all suspected cases. The scale of preventive interventions appeared to be small in India and Nepal, with less than 50 per cent of the high-risk populations covered. The other malaria-endemic countries (Bangladesh, Indonesia, Myanmar and Timor-Leste) reported no change or an increase in the number of cases, and the scale of control activities appeared to be small in relation to the total populations at risk. In summary, four countries (Bhutan, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka and Thailand) showed a decrease in malaria cases associated with malaria programme activity, although the decrease in Thailand appears to have levelled off between 2006 and 2008.

57. The number of reported malaria cases in the European Region has been reduced substantially, from 32,474 in 2000 to 285 in 2009. Intensive control activities are implemented throughout the Region. Indoor residual spraying is the primary means of vector control, supplemented by the use of the larvivorous Gambusia fish in rice-growing areas, passive and active case detection and inter-country collaboration in affected border areas; in 2005, all nine malaria-affected countries in the European Region endorsed the Tashkent Declaration, whose goals are to interrupt malaria transmission by 2015 and to eliminate the disease within the Region. The last two cases of locally acquired *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria were reported in Tajikistan in 2008. If no further cases are reported in the Region, 2009 will have marked the year in which this type of malaria was eliminated there. In summary, all malaria-endemic countries in the European Region have active malaria control programmes and have reported sustained decreases of more than 50 per cent in the number of cases.

58. Four countries in the Eastern Mediterranean Region (Afghanistan, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Iraq and Saudi Arabia) reported downward trends in malaria frequency. There was evidence of intense control activities in Iran (Islamic Republic of), Iraq and Saudi Arabia, which were classified as in the elimination or pre-elimination phase. Other countries in the Region (Djibouti, Pakistan, Somalia, the Sudan and Yemen) had not registered consistent decreases in the number of cases,

although the Sudan had expanded the coverage of its malaria preventive activities to more than 50 per cent of the at-risk population. In summary, three countries (Iran (Islamic Republic of), Iraq and Saudi Arabia) showed evidence of a sustained decrease in the number of cases associated with the wide-scale implementation of malaria control activities.

59. Three countries (the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the Republic of Korea and Viet Nam) reported decreases of more than 50 per cent in the number of confirmed cases between 2000 and 2008, and three countries (Malaysia, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu) reported decreases of more than 25 per cent during the same period. In all six of those countries, there was evidence of the wide-scale implementation of malaria control activities. No evidence of a sustained decrease in the number of cases was found in Cambodia, China, Papua New Guinea or the Philippines. Evidence of increased preventive or curative activities was seen in all these countries, in particular the Philippines, but either such activities had been too recent for their effects to be apparent or weaknesses in surveillance systems had prevented changes from being detected. In summary, six countries (the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, the Republic of Korea, Solomon Islands, Vanuatu and Viet Nam) showed evidence of a sustained decrease in the number of cases associated with the wide-scale implementation of malaria control activities.

X. Elimination

60. WHO encourages countries in areas of low, unstable transmission to proceed to malaria elimination (the interruption of transmission).[2] The conditions that are prerequisites for achieving and sustaining malaria elimination in such settings include the presence of a health system providing nationwide coverage of quality-controlled services, including surveillance. In areas of high, stable transmission with unrelentingly high vectorial capacities, such as many parts of tropical Africa, achieving and sustaining a malaria-free status is improbable, given the currently available malaria control tools.

61. Ten countries (Algeria, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Iraq, Kyrgyzstan, the Republic of Korea, Saudi Arabia, Tajikistan, Turkey and Uzbekistan) are implementing elimination programmes nationwide. Of these, Saudi Arabia is the only country that still has active *Plasmodium falciparum* transmission and that is located outside the Palearctic ecozone. Four of the countries (Algeria, Iraq, Georgia and Uzbekistan) report fewer than 10 local cases annually nationwide, and a further two countries report fewer than 100 cases annually.

62. Eight countries (Argentina, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, El Salvador, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Malaysia, Mexico, Paraguay and Sri Lanka)

[2] Malaria elimination: the interruption of local mosquito-borne malaria transmission; reduction to zero of the incidence of infection caused by human malaria parasites in a defined geographical area as a result of deliberate efforts; continued measures to prevent the re-establishment of transmission are required. Certification of malaria elimination can be granted by WHO after it has been proved beyond reasonable doubt that the chain of local human malaria transmission by Anopheles mosquitoes has been fully interrupted in an entire country for at least three consecutive years. Malaria eradication: permanent reduction to zero of the worldwide incidence of infection caused by a specific agent; applies to a particular malaria parasite species. Intervention measures are no longer needed once eradication has been achieved.

are in the pre-elimination stage and are moving towards a nationwide elimination approach.

63. A further eight countries have recently interrupted transmission. Outbreaks of new local transmission have occurred in recent years in the Bahamas, Jamaica and the Russian Federation, and have recurred in Oman after a three-year absence. Together with the Syrian Arab Republic (where the last local case was reported in 2004), Armenia, Turkmenistan (last local cases reported in 2005) and Egypt, these countries make up the group of countries that are seeking to prevent the reintroduction of transmission. To that end, strong surveillance systems are essential.

64. In May 2010, Morocco became the second country in recent history to be certified by WHO as having achieved malaria elimination; the United Arab Emirates was certified in January 2007. Morocco reported its last case of indigenous *Plasmodium vivax* malaria transmission in 2004. Turkmenistan and Armenia have initiated the process for certification of malaria elimination.

65. Eight countries in the Southern African Development Community are currently implementing a cross-border approach to the elimination of malaria in the region. The initiative, entitled "Elimination 8", involves Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Angola, Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe, and is supported by WHO, the Roll Back Malaria Partnership and the University of California, San Francisco.

XI. Summary and recommendations

66. Progress is being made towards achieving the goals concerning malaria control set by the World Health Assembly and the Roll Back Malaria Partnership, including halving the 2000 malaria burden by the end of 2010. Particularly encouraging is the increased availability of long-lasting insecticide-treated nets. In Africa alone, 240 million nets were distributed between 2006 and 2009. Those efforts, coupled with the targeted application of indoor residual spraying and modest increases in access to artemisinin combination therapies, have begun to produce results.

67. In countries where malaria control interventions have been scaled up, not only have the rates of malaria cases, hospitalizations and deaths dropped dramatically, but the overall child mortality rates are also in steep decline. National disease surveillance data from Eritrea, Sao Tome and Principe, Rwanda, Zambia and Zanzibar, in the United Republic of Tanzania, showed more than a 50 per cent reduction in the number of health facility malaria cases and deaths following accelerated malaria control interventions. In Sao Tome and Principe and Zanzibar, those gains were mirrored by more than a 50 per cent decline in all-cause inpatient cases and deaths among children under 5 years of age. In Zambia, the all-cause child mortality rate fell by 35 per cent, as measured both by the number of deaths recorded in health facilities and by under-5 mortality ratios determined through the 2007 Demographic and Health Survey. The magnitude of those decreases is similar to that found in a recent study conducted on Bioko island, Equatorial Guinea, in which population-based under-5 mortality decreased by 66 per cent by the fourth year after the start of intensive malaria control activities. Such evidence suggests that intensive malaria control could play an important role in helping African countries reach the Millennium Development Goal 4 target of reducing child mortality by two thirds by 2015.

68. Furthermore, a decrease of more than 50 per cent in the reported number of confirmed malaria cases was found between 2000 and 2008 in 29 of the 56 malaria-endemic countries outside Africa and in 5 of the 6 low-burden African countries. Downward trends of more than 25 per cent were seen in five other countries, most of which showed longer-term decreases of more than 50 per cent. Ten countries are implementing elimination programmes nationwide, while eight countries are in the pre-elimination phase. A further eight countries have recently interrupted transmission and are at the stage of preventing the reintroduction of malaria. In May 2010, Morocco became the second country in recent history to be certified by WHO as having achieved malaria elimination.

69. It appears that large quantities of external assistance for malaria control are having an effect. Countries receiving more than $7 in external assistance per at-risk person between 2000 and 2007 were more likely to report a reduction in the number of malaria cases since 2000 than countries receiving $6 or less. Although the number of countries with such high levels of assistance is small (only 10), this observation suggests that high levels of external assistance per person at risk for malaria are associated with decreases in the incidence of the disease.

70. While those results are encouraging, some shortfalls in terms of progress are evident. Nearby 70 per cent of households in Africa did not own an insecticide-treated net in 2008, and three quarters of children under 5 did not use one. Those results are affected by low net ownership in several large African countries, for which scale-up resources are only now being made available. Use of artemisinin combination therapies remains very low in most African countries; in 11 of the 13 countries surveyed during 2007-2008, fewer than 15 per cent of under-5 children with fever had received such a therapy, which is far below the World Health Assembly target of 80 per cent.

71. Outside Africa, the countries showing more than a 50 per cent decrease in the number of cases accounted for only 4 per cent of the estimated total number of cases outside Africa in 2006 (850,000 cases, out of an estimated 34 million). The countries with the highest malaria burdens in each region (including Bangladesh, Brazil, Cambodia, Colombia, Indonesia, Myanmar, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea and the Sudan) were less successful in reducing their numbers of malaria cases. Greater attention needs to be given to ensuring success in large countries that account for most malaria cases and deaths.

72. While efforts should be made to achieve and maintain universal coverage of all malaria control interventions, there is a particular need to ensure universal access to diagnostic tests for malaria. As transmission falls, so does the proportion of fevers attributable to malaria. By treating all cases of fever as malaria, we not only overuse artemisinin combination therapies, but also fail to provide appropriate care to people with fever caused by other diseases. Expansion of the use of rapid diagnostic tests will help to reduce the overtreatment of fever as malaria. However, malaria tests alone are not enough. In the absence of rapid tests for other common causes of fever, training and supervision to reinforce the differential diagnosis skills of health-care workers is essential. It is also essential that appropriate medicines be available at the point of care for the management of malaria and other diseases. Otherwise, there is a risk that patients with negative test results will be given antimalarial medicines.

73. There is also a need to implement routine surveillance systems that will provide timely information regarding the progress made as a result of programmes. The scale-up of universal diagnostic testing presents an unprecedented opportunity to strengthen malaria surveillance systems, which are critical not only for documenting impact, but also for identifying residual foci of malaria transmission and areas of resurgence. In countries where malaria transmission has dropped sharply, immunity to the disease will wane, resulting in a high risk of resurgence. Without the timely reporting of confirmed cases, it will not be possible to detect or respond to such resurgences promptly. The human toll of outbreaks in countries that have failed to prepare for them is likely to be great. The scaling-up of diagnostic testing and surveillance is thus particularly critical in countries that are considering a reorientation of their control programmes towards elimination.

74. Resistance to artemisinins has been found in Asia, and if containment efforts are unsuccessful, there is a high risk that it will eventually spread westward to Africa and beyond. Countries need to redouble their efforts at the global level to halt the marketing and use of oral artemisinin alone, which is thought to be the primary contributor to the emergence and spread of artemisinin resistance. High-quality combination therapies need to be available in both public and private health facilities at an affordable price. In order to ensure the prompt detection of resistance, we need to ensure the routine conduct of drug efficacy studies, in which patients with malaria are treated with recommended antimalarial medicines and monitored for up to 63 days in order to determine success or failure.

75. Poor-quality and counterfeit medicines are widespread, especially in the private sector. Such medicines not only jeopardize the lives of individual patients, who may fail to receive appropriate malaria treatment, but also have the potential to fuel antimalarial-drug resistance. The global community needs to increase support for national drug regulatory authorities so that they can build their capacity to identify counterfeit and substandard medicines and enforce existing regulations by removing such products from the market.

76. There are a number of quality issues concerning rapid diagnostic tests, and it is widely recognized that malaria microscopy services are often poor. Countries will require further help with the pre-marketing quality control of diagnostic tests (through the evaluation of both performance and manufacturing quality) and with routine lot quality testing, as well as with quality assurance and quality control as part of national control programmes.

77. Although health-care workers are essential in the fight against malaria, they cannot succeed without community engagement. Ministries of health should view communities as active participants in malaria control programmes and work to persuade them to take ownership over as many aspects of such programmes as possible, including ensuring that every person sleeps under an insecticide-impregnated mosquito net every night; providing community management of fever; and gathering data both for local action and for feeding into a national malaria surveillance system. If communities can be empowered to be on centre stage in the fight against malaria, rather than simply being seen as the end-users of commodities and services, the political will to combat malaria will not fade, even if donor funding does.

78. While the need for continued financial resources, targeted to priority countries and programmes, cannot be dismissed, one theme runs through these action areas:

the capacity of ministries of health to deliver effective malaria control must be increased. The gains from increased investment are likely to be ephemeral unless ministries remain the centre of gravity and receive the capacity-building and long-term human resource investment at all levels of the system (national, provincial, district and community) necessary to manage increasingly complex programmes. It is critical that donor contributions be well coordinated with national malaria control programmes and that funding for commodities to control malaria be tightly linked to true capacity-building, including the provision of long-term technical assistance and the extensive training of staff at all levels of the health system. At the same time, Governments of countries where malaria is endemic should be urged to provide the investments in human resources necessary to guarantee long-term success. In the end, malaria control can both contribute to and benefit from strengthened health systems.

United Nations A/65/211

General Assembly

Distr.: General
2 August 2010

Original: English

Sixty-fifth session
Item 18 (a) of the provisional agenda*
Macroeconomic policy questions: International trade and development

International trade and development

Report of the Secretary-General

Summary

A strong and sustained global recovery is indispensable for employment creation, poverty alleviation and sustainable development, which enhances the prospects for achieving the Millennium Development Goals. A resurgence in trade has contributed to the recovery. Emerging developing countries are driving the recovery, reflecting the multipolarity of the global economy and emerging economic powers. Increasingly, countries pursue integrated growth strategies, adapted to their specific needs, for structural transformation and building diversified productive capabilities. Post-crisis growth needs to strike a balance between external and domestic sources of growth and address climate change. The multilateral trading system is a global public good. It faces challenges of redressing asymmetries and imbalances affecting the developing countries. The interdependence of economies requires coherence in addressing the development dimension at all levels of global economic governance. The United Nations plays a critical role in that regard.

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I. Introduction

1. The present report has been prepared pursuant to General Assembly resolution 64/188, in which the Secretary-General, in collaboration with the secretariat of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), was requested to submit to the General Assembly at its sixty-fifth session a report on developments in the multilateral trading system, including with regard to the implementation of the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) Development Agenda.

II. Economic and trade trends

A. Fragile economic recovery

2. The global economy is recovering from the deep and widespread downturn. The pace of recovery is faster than expected globally, though uneven and fragile. After contracting by 1.9 per cent in 2009, world gross domestic product (GDP) is projected to increase by 3.7 per cent in 2010.[1] With a growth rate reaching 6.9 per cent in 2010, developing countries will largely outpace developed countries growing at 2.4 per cent. Europe, in particular the transition economies, and countries in Central Asia that are directly affected by the financial crisis, and commodity-dependent economies, face weaker growth. Developing countries in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean were also affected by reduced levels of trade, foreign direct investment, remittances and tourism.

3. Developing countries with strong domestic demand, particularly emerging economies in Asia, drive the return to growth. Demand growth is boosted by the upturn in inventory cycles. Fiscal stimulus, globally estimated at $2.6 trillion, was important in fostering recovery. At present an exit from expansionary counter-cyclical policies is under way, which means that the sustainability of recovery increasingly depends on private demand and structural factors. Unfortunately, high and persistent unemployment continues to hinder private demand growth. Moreover, the root causes of the crisis are yet to be effectively addressed, such as financial regulatory weaknesses, inequalities within and among countries, global imbalances and the incoherence of global governance.

4. A weak recovery will compromise efforts towards meeting the Millennium Development Goals. The combined effects of food, energy, financial and economic crises had severe social and economic impacts. It is estimated that 53 million more people will remain in extreme poverty by 2015 owing to the crisis.[2] Sub-Saharan Africa is unlikely to meet the Millennium Development Goal poverty target despite progress since 1990. The Millennium Development Goal target on hunger appears unlikely to be met with an estimated one billion hungry people worldwide. Addressing root causes, including by redirecting resources to agriculture investment, prioritizing food security in economic policymaking, and implementing the Group of Eight pledge of $20 billion for agricultural development is urgently needed. The Group of Twenty (G-20) Summit, to be held in Seoul in November 2010, will deliberate on a development agenda, including action plans with

[1] UNCTAD, *Trade and Development Report 2010* (forthcoming).

[2] World Bank/IMF, *Global Monitoring Report 2010: The MDGs after the Crisis* (Washington, D.C., 2010).

measures to promote economic growth and resilience in developing countries, which would contribute to addressing issues of concern to developing countries.

5. After falling by an unprecedented 12.2 per cent in volume terms and 23 per cent in value terms in 2009 (reaching $12 trillion from $16 trillion), world trade volume is projected by the World Trade Organization (WTO) to expand by 9.5 per cent in 2010. While trade finance markets improved since 2009, accessing credit remains difficult for small countries, small banks and small and medium-sized enterprises, particularly in Africa and the least developed countries. Facilitating access to trade financing, including through South-South initiatives, is ongoing. Foreign direct investment inflows to developing countries and transition economies remain weak. Such inflows declined by 27 per cent to $478 billion in 2009.[3] Total net official development assistance (ODA) from members of the Development Assistance Committee of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) would reach $126 billion in 2010.[4] However, at 0.31 per cent of donors' combined gross national income, current ODA falls short of the Monterrey target of 0.7 per cent by 2015.

6. Exceptionally high levels of unemployment can undermine the recovery's sustainability, resulting in reduced household income and increased inequality. The global unemployment rate for 2009 climbed to 6.6 per cent, or 212 million,[5] with the largest jumps in developed countries where unemployment rate stands at 8.4 per cent especially in the United States of America (9.5 per cent) and the euro area (10 per cent), but also in some developing countries such as South Africa (25.2 per cent) and India (10 per cent). Owing to excess capacity, many firms will delay recruiting workers to improve productivity. Consequently, unemployment in 2010 is projected to decline marginally to 6.5 per cent with continued downward wage pressure. Policies addressing the trade-industrial-employment-development nexus became important.

7. Many countries face higher debt levels owing to, inter alia, cumulated fiscal deficits and counter-cyclical fiscal spending. In developed countries, average debt levels would reach 110 per cent of GDP by 2015,[6] affecting the timing of crisis-exit strategies. The recent euro zone debt crisis further accelerated the move by countries with high debt levels towards fiscal consolidation, which risks slowing down incipient growth and turning into double-dipped recession with deflation. In countries recovering fast including Brazil, China and India, monetary tightening has been implemented owing to concerns over economic overheating. For most countries, the fragility of the recovery necessitates the continuation of expansionary strategies.

8. The sustainability of recovery also hinges on global rebalancing. As trade regains momentum, current account imbalances reduced in 2009 are growing again. Shifting from external to domestic demand is important for surplus countries. For deficit countries, increasing savings and reducing debt-sustained consumption is needed together with export expansion. The net effect of rebalancing could be deflationary, as the reduced United States private consumption, representing 16 per

[3] UNCTAD, *World Investment Report 2010: Investing in a low-carbon economy* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.10.II.D.2).

[4] OECD, 14 April 2010.

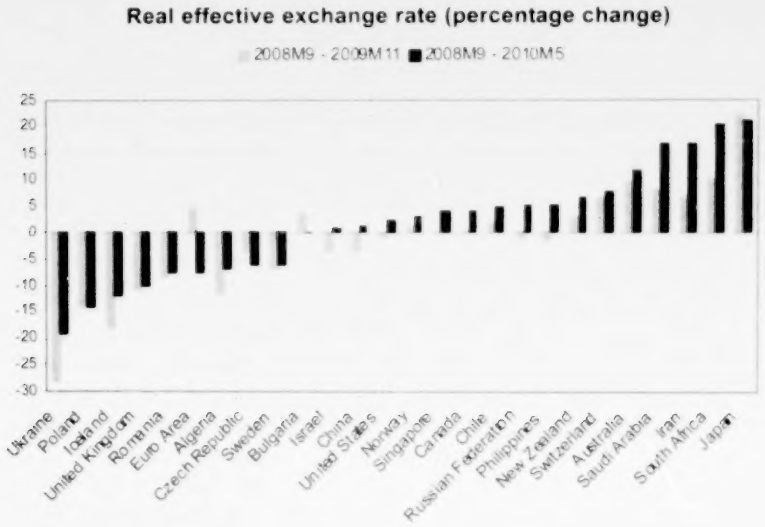
[5] International Labour Office, *Global Employment Trends: January 2010* (Geneva, ILO, 2010).

[6] IMF, *World Economic Outlook, April 2010: Rebalancing Growth* (Washington, D.C., 2010).

cent of world output, is unlikely to be fully offset by an increase in Chinese consumption. Global rebalancing necessitates contributions from other surplus countries (e.g., Germany, Japan) and those with increasing per capita income.

9. Exchange-rate adjustment plays a vital role in global rebalancing. Appreciation of currency in surplus countries will contribute to increasing imports by strengthening their purchasing power while depreciation of deficit countries' currency will enhance export competitiveness by reducing dollar-denominated value of export products. As the effects of currency depreciation are similar to that of an export subsidy or import tax, there were fears that some countries were softening the effect of the crisis by resorting to competitive devaluation. So far, the impact has been limited.

Box 1
Euro zone crisis and global rebalancing



Source: IMF International Financial Statistics.
Note: Consumer price index based real effective exchange rate index.

Real effective exchange rate movements of major currencies between September 2008 and April 2010 suggest that the euro zone debt crisis in November 2009 reversed the valuation of the euro towards depreciation against major currencies — roughly by 17.6 per cent vis-à-vis the United States dollar and 4.1 per cent in real terms. For others, exchange rates continued to move generally in expected directions, as deficit countries' currencies depreciated while those of surplus countries appreciated, granting export competitive advantages to the former. China and the United States, despite large external imbalances, saw almost no change in the real value of their currencies, having limited impact on global rebalancing.

10. Strengthened and coordinated financial regulations are important in addressing flaws in financial regulatory systems that contributed to the crisis. The G-20, at the Pittsburgh Summit in 2009 agreed to enhance macroprudential regulation and system-wide oversight. This involves higher and better quality capital and liquidity requirements, mitigating pro-cyclicality, and stronger requirements on systemically important institutions. The "Basel III" banking capital requirement, a major step in financial regulation and supervision reform, will be implemented by 2012. This could reduce growth potential in the short run. The World Bank estimates that tighter financial regulations and increased sovereign borrowing could reduce the growth rates of developing countries by between 0.2-0.7 per cent for a period of five to seven years. There could be a case for separate provisions of bank regulation, applicable to the needs of developing countries. The United States financial reform bill adopted in July 2010 addressing regulatory oversight, derivatives and troubled "too-big-to-fail" banks, could accelerate the move towards stronger regulations in financial centres and a robust international regulatory framework.

11. The economic crisis resulted in an increase in unemployment that also adversely affected migrant workers. The contribution of migration to development[7] is important to sending countries as it provides a channel for income flows associated with remittances, investment and technology transfer. It also benefits receiving countries by helping to fill labour shortages at all skill levels and thereby contributes to increased economic activity and tax revenue. Harnessing the development benefit of migration and minimizing its possible downsides (e.g., brain drain) should receive attention in the recovery.

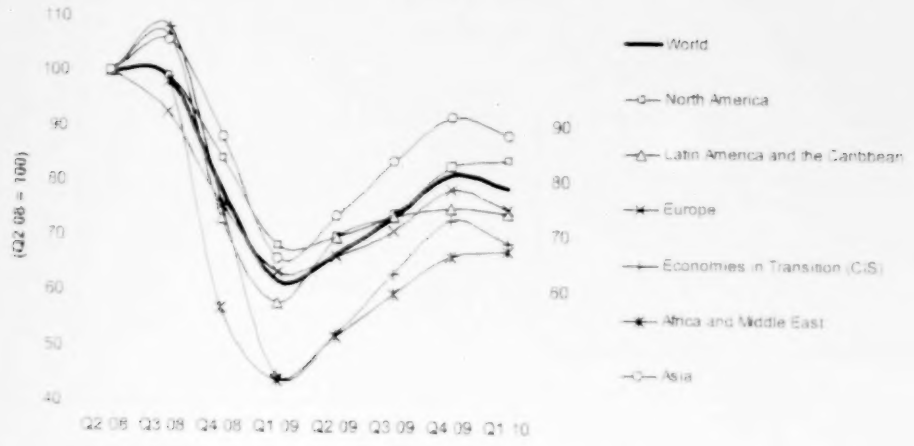
B. Merchandise trade

12. The contraction of world merchandise trade between end 2008 and early 2009 was sudden, deep, generalized and synchronous across regions (figure I). The magnitude of the decline far exceeded that in output and was the largest in the post-war period. By the first quarter of 2010, world exports recovered to 81 per cent of their pre-crisis values. The recovery was most pronounced in Asia and North America. For Africa and the Middle East, transition economies and Latin America and the Caribbean, export contraction was more pronounced. For most regions, export levels fell during the first quarter of 2010.

[7] Note by the UNCTAD secretariat on the contribution of migrants to development: trade, investment and development linkages (UNCTAD/DITC/TNCD/2009/2).

Figure I

Evolution of merchandise exports by region 2008-2010

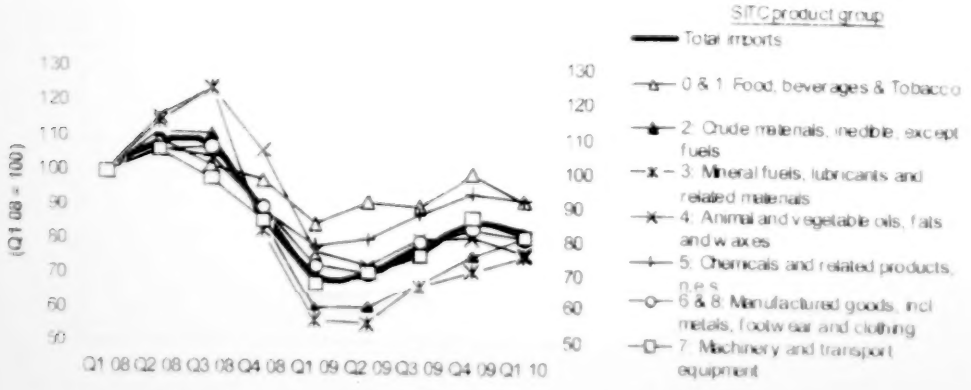


Source: UNCTAD, based on World Trade Organization statistics, 2010.

13. Contributing to the decline in world trade was an abrupt and sharp reduction in the demand for consumer and capital goods owing to uncertainty in the availability of commercial and consumer credit. The demand shock was magnified and transmitted rapidly through global supply chains. Since manufactures constitute 70 per cent of world merchandise trade but only a small proportion of GDP, trade decreased more than output. Reduced production of manufactures led to lower demand for energy and raw materials. Other factors contributing to falling trade volumes include sharp swings in commodity prices and a shortage of trade financing.

Figure II

Indexed value of Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development country imports by Standard International Trade Classification product group


130
120
110
100
90
80
70
60
50
(Q1 08 = 100)
Q1 08 Q2 08 Q3 08 Q4 08 Q1 09 Q2 09 Q3 09 Q4 09 Q1 10
SITC product group
Total imports
0 & 1: Food, beverages & Tobacco
2: Crude materials, inedible, except fuels
3: Mineral fuels, lubricants and related materials
4: Animal and vegetable oils, fats and waxes
5: Chemicals and related products, n.e.s.
6 & 8: Manufactured goods, incl metals, footwear and clothing
7: Machinery and transport equipment

Source: UNCTAD, based on OECD statistics.

14. Imports in all product groups returned to an upward trend in step with a return to positive growth and higher import demand, although none of the product groups' import levels reached the pre-crisis levels. The import value of machinery and transport equipment registered dynamic recovery. The value of commodities recovered the least, retarding the trade recovery of commodity exporters.

Box 2

Global supply chains and international trade

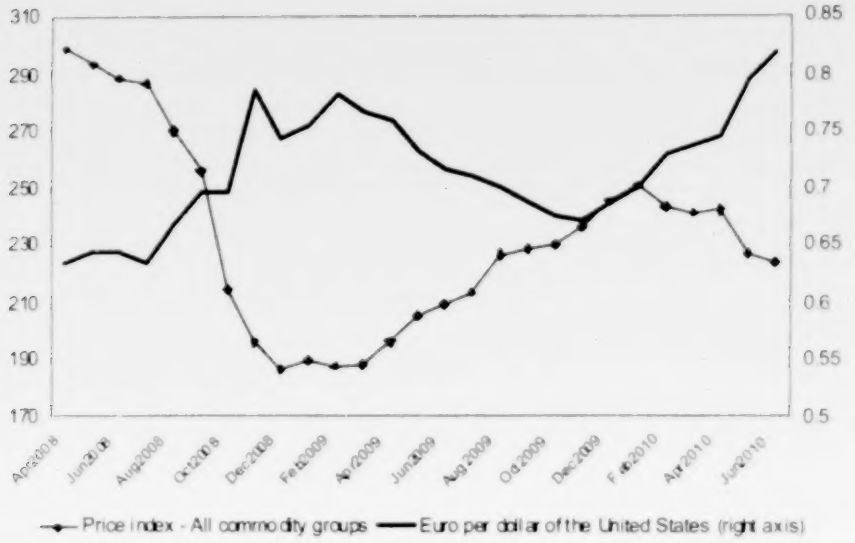
The bulk of international trade is in intermediate goods and services following increased fragmentation of production as firms outsource production. UNCTAD estimates that intermediate products represent 48 per cent of world non-fuel merchandise trade in 2008. This is attributable to the integration of East and South-East Asia in the global supply chains since the 1990s. Intermediate goods trade accounts for 57 per cent of intra-Asian trade, implying also that higher regional growth contributes to growth in other regions. Trade in intermediate/producer services, including outsourcing and offshoring, is also growing rapidly. They represent 73 per cent of OECD countries' total services trade while emerging economies such as India are increasing their share in business services.[a] A joint study by UNCTAD, the Commonwealth Secretariat and the India Centre for WTO Studies, examining existing trade flows indicates that countries in South Asia have the import demand for inputs relevant for establishing supply chains in the textiles and clothing sector which is met mainly from sources outside the region. The region has the supply capacity for exports and in many cases there exist lower cost suppliers in the region. This indicates that at the national level each country can identify supply chains and lower its import costs from the region, including through the South Asia Free Trade Agreement. The integration into global supply chains has allowed countries to capture greater gains from trade and specialization. It has also made them more interdependent and vulnerable to external shocks as demonstrated by the sharp contraction in trade, especially in Asia during the crisis.

[a] OECD, "Trade in intermediate goods and services" (TAD/TC/WP(2009)1/FINAL).

15. Developing countries' trade performance is closely associated with commodity price movements, which witnessed large volatility, hampering economic growth. The volatility owes, inter alia, to supply and demand, financialization of markets and speculation. Prices recovered during the second quarter of 2009, with the largest rise in mineral fuels and metals, particularly crude petroleum, which is indispensable for industrial production. Those were also the commodities that experienced the largest price loss. Price recovery was driven by growing demand from emerging economies, in particular China, and commodity stockpiling. The overall price volatility of commodities is positively related to the United States dollar valuation. There is a need to bring stability in commodities prices, including

through revitalization of international commodity agreements and dealing with commodity price speculation.[8]

Figure III
Evolution of commodities prices and exchange rates



Source: UNCTAD.

C. Services trade

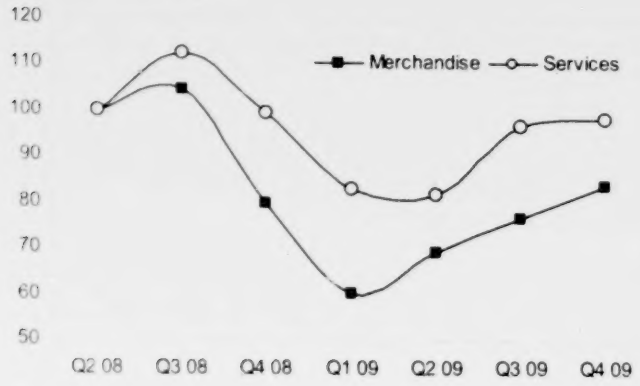
16. In contrast to merchandise trade, fluctuations in services exports since late 2008 exhibited less synchronicity across countries and lower magnitudes of decline (13 per cent). The lower volatility of total services exports to income shocks highlighted the relative "resilience" of total services trade to the crisis. Hence diversification into the services sector is conducive to building domestic economic resilience to external shocks and reducing excessive commodity dependences, and it can be particularly important for least developed countries and small, structurally weak and vulnerable States. Specialization matters with regard to growing, resilient and employment-generating services sectors.

17. The aggregate services exports of 42 developing countries and transition economies confirm smaller variation in cross-border services exports than in merchandise exports.

[8] UNCTAD, *Trade and Development Report 2010* (to be issued); and Note by the UNCTAD secretariat on the evolution of the international trading system and of international trade from a development perspective: the impact of the crisis-mitigation measures and prospects for recovery (TD/B/57/3).

Figure IV

Services and merchandise exports for 42 developing countries and transition economies

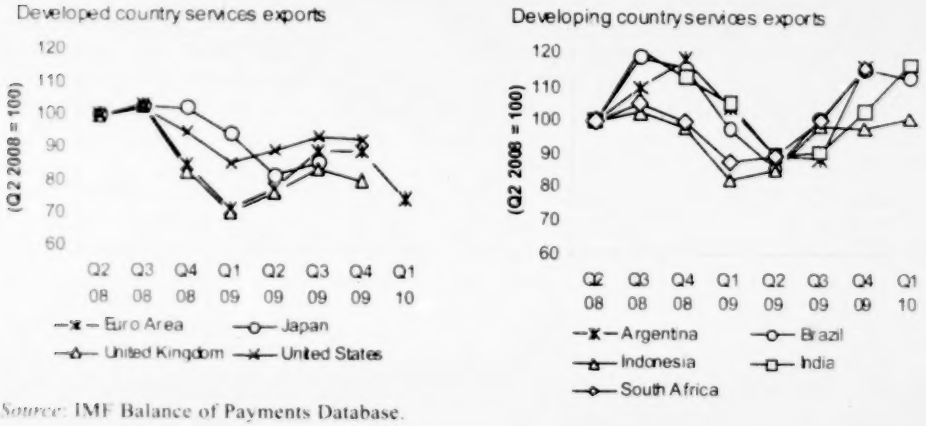


Source: UNCTAD, based on the IMF Balance of Payments Database.

18. Important intercountry and intersector variations exist (see figure V). Services exports of some countries exhibited less synchronicity, and developing countries performance showed larger variability than that of developed countries. On aggregate, some developing countries have recovered to a level above their pre-crisis levels while others experienced a weak recovery.

Figure V

Services exports of selected countries

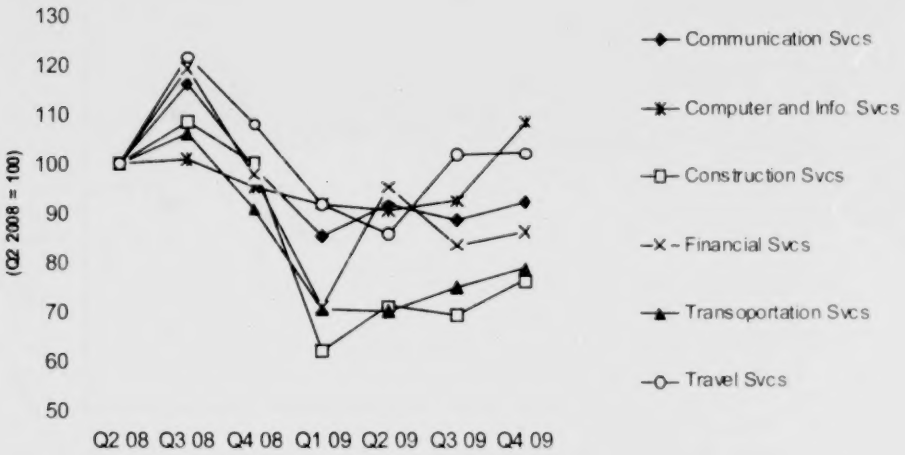


Source: IMF Balance of Payments Database.

19. For a sample of 14 developing countries and transition economies, the effect of the crisis on services exports differs across services categories with some sectors (e.g., transportation, tourism, construction, financial) more strongly affected than others (e.g., telecommunications) (see figure VI). Transportation services are directly related with merchandise trade, 80 per cent of which are shipped by sea or air. The Baltic Dry Index, tracking shipping demand, declined by 90 per cent in 2008 before regaining a level 40 per cent below the 2008 peak by June 2009.

International tourist arrivals remained relatively resilient, falling by 4 per cent in 2009 and increasing by 7 per cent in the first four months of 2010, with tourism receipts forecasted to grow by 4 per cent in 2010.

Figure VI
Services exports by category for 14 developing countries and transition economies[a]



Source: IMF Balance of Payments Database.
[a] Include Brazil, India, the Russian Federation and South Africa.

20. Remittance inflows to developing countries remained resilient and important as a source of external financing even during the crisis. As economic conditions improve in receiving countries, remittance flows to developing countries would increase by 6.2 per cent in 2010, after decreasing by 6 per cent, to $316 billion, in 2009. The contraction affects most regions except South Asia, reflecting a varying degree of the exposure of workers to job losses in host countries. For many least developed countries and sub-Saharan Africa, remittances form over 10 per cent of their GDP. The development of the financial services sector in migrant sending countries (e.g., banking facilities) can help recipient households to consider channelling remittances into productive and local income-earning activities by providing options for saving and investment, as well as reducing the costs of transfer.

III. Post-crisis growth strategies

21. The prevailing orthodox growth models encapsulated in the Washington Consensus, favouring reduced government, privatization, deregulation, liberalization and stabilization, have proved unsuccessful in triggering broad-based sustained development. The unsatisfactory results contrast with the rapid growth of East and South Asian countries relying on unorthodox, pragmatic policies with strong Government intervention, accompanied by calibrated opening to trade and investment.

22. The crisis challenged the prevailing growth models for: (a) liberalization of financial services and capital account without adequate domestic regulations and institutions, showing the inability of markets to self-regulate, and the merit of careful capital account management and financial services regulations in supporting real economy; (b) rapid trade liberalization, locking-in policies and dismantling of States' role whereas proactive Government intervention and policy space, combined with a sensible pacing, sequencing and extent of liberalization, were common to countries withstanding the crisis; (c) excessive reliance on exports, often in limited commodities, sustained by leveraged consumption particularly in the United States, and hence the value of diversified production and balanced domestic and external sources of growth; and (d) excessive focus on competitiveness relying on labour flexibilities and lax environmental policies, whereas job creation and cleaner development is prerequisite for social and environmental sustainability.

23. Global attention has refocused on sustainable growth and pro-poor development imperatives neglected in the Washington Consensus, with the recognition that there is no one-size-fits-all approach to development. New growth strategies need to be calibrated and sequenced to countries' conditions.[9] Strategies should aim at realizing structural transformation combining export- and demand-led growth with diversified production capabilities, increased value-addition and technology-content, competitiveness, job creation and poverty alleviation and mitigating climate change.[10] A major export drive by large countries could increase unsustainable competition for markets. Balancing growth sources externally and domestically will reduce possible tensions among countries competing for markets. South-South and regional integration is an integral aspect of such strategies.

24. Governments play a catalytic role in sustaining structural transformation by formulating integrated and comprehensive development policies and strategies, encompassing industrial, trade, services, agricultural investment and technology policies, to upgrade existing local productive capabilities, including through learning from experiences, regional integration and coordination among all stakeholders. Countries' productive structures are determined by the local availability of specific inputs with more capabilities required for sophisticated products. Specialization in certain sectors is more likely to trigger growth than others (e.g., services, creative industries, organic agriculture, agro-processing, energy-efficiency products). Government intervention can play a role in shifting productive resources from sectors where the country has a natural comparative advantage to others where new, dynamic comparative advantages can be exploited.

25. Several countries have embarked on such new integrated and more interventionist strategies for economy recovery and growth, by providing stimulus, building infrastructures, promoting small and medium-sized enterprises, providing credits through States or development banks and building human capital. For instance, the United States Government's 2010 Trade Policy Agenda launched Government-wide export promotion strategies. Its National Export Initiative seeks to double exports in five years to support 2 million jobs, including enhanced trade financing and support measures for small and medium-sized enterprises. A proposed

[9] UNCTAD, *Trade and Development Report, 2009* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.09.II.D.16); and Dani Rodrik, *Journal of Economic Perspectives*.

[10] Note by the UNCTAD secretariat on successful trade and development strategies for mitigating the impact of the global economic and financial crisis (TD/B/C.I/7 and Corr.1).

legislation aims to support United States manufactures by reducing tariffs on inputs. This strategy seeks to balance United States reliance on domestic consumption for growth and employment with stimulus of increased exports. China's fiscal stimulus aims, inter alia, at redirecting its growth towards domestic demand, by expanding infrastructure investment, spending and technology for public services, innovation and industrial restructuring, as well as income tax cuts and consumption subsidies, including for automobiles and electrical appliances. In 2009, domestic consumption increased GDP by 4.6 percentage points. South Africa, through its National Industrial Policy Framework, promotes growth, industrial upgrading, export diversification and employment creation, especially in agroprocessing, labour-intensive and environmental sectors, through a combination of government procurement, tariffs, industrial financing and sectoral support through public banks, strategic trade policy and African regional integration.

26. Trade continues to play a key role in growth. It is not open trade per se, but the structural transformation of an economy and the quality of trade that matters for development. A narrow focus on trade liberalization and locking-in policies can have long-lasting socio-economic consequences as highlighted in the disappointing growth performance of sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean that underwent the structural adjustment programmes of the international financial institutions in the 1980s, and by Haiti, where deep liberalization under the IMF-led structural adjustment programmes had major adverse effects on local production and food security,[11] with the result that today, 70 per cent of Haiti's rice is imported.

27. Developing countries need to diversify their export basket towards higher value-added products in dynamic sectors of trade such as certain horticulture, electronic and electrical products, textiles and services, and regain use of industrial development policy. The following deserve attention in the formulation of growth strategies: (a) calibrated reform of tariffs and subsidies policies without undermining industrial development; (b) calibrated reform of services policies and regulations, ensuring that progressive liberalization does not undermine development efforts for services supply; (c) comprehensive sustainable agriculture development policies, with extensive development assistance; (d) ensure development and access to technology, including through calibrated intellectual property protection, technology innovation and human capital-building. International support is needed on enhancing structural transformation, particularly in least developed countries, sub-Saharan Africa and structurally weak and vulnerable economies.

[11] *UNCTAD Policy Briefs*, No. 13, "Rebuilding Haiti: a new approach to international cooperation" (March 2010); and No. 15, "Hungry for change: building new paths to food security in LDCs" (June 2010).

Box 3
Industrial development policies

As countries pursue growth strategies, some policy instruments are particularly relevant but are constrained by international disciplines under WTO and regional trade agreements. Subsidies, including those linked to local content requirements, assisted in the development of textiles, aircraft, transport, energy and automobile sectors in the past. Subsidies conditional on local content requirements are currently prohibited under the WTO rules. To expand policy flexibilities for industrial development purposes, developing countries have sought to make certain types of subsidies "non-actionable" (permissible) under WTO rules such as those for regional development, research and development, product diversification and environmental sustainability. Historically, local content requirements were also used to extract greater benefits from foreign direct investment in strategic sectors, including automotives, to promote localization of value-added production. Some developed countries had imposed a local content requirement of 75 to 90 per cent on car makers. WTO currently prohibits trade-related investment measures conditional on local content requirements. Government procurement has served as important industrial policy tool. Various "buy national" laws (i.e., local content requirements) were implemented in connection with government procurement to promote local industries and small and medium-sized enterprises. Such policies contributed to the development of aircraft industries (Boeing, Airbus and Embraer). Under WTO, government procurement is regulated by a plurilateral agreement. Since many developing countries are not parties, they preserve the flexibility to use local content requirements in their procurement policy. Given that local content requirements are prohibited for subsidies and trade-related investment measures, government procurement is the only instrument available for developing countries to use local content requirements.

IV. Developments in the international trading system

28. The international trading system is multi-layered, including the multilateral trading system, regional trade agreements and other arrangements, leading to increasing fragmentation The multilateral trading system, as embodied in WTO, has made an important contribution to a predictable, rules-based trading environment. Challenges affecting its credibility and viability (as discussed below) have emerged, including the proliferation of regional trade agreements that are eroding the multilateral non-discrimination principle, making it an exceptional treatment. Various crisis response measures have pointed to the merit and limit of the WTO system. The multilateral trading system is also facing a development deficit. The inability of the system to conclude the Doha Development Round, the longest of all General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)/WTO negotiations, and deliver on a substantive development dimension has underlined a systemic need to improve the

WTO function as a negotiating forum. These challenges need to be addressed so that the system may be strengthened with a view to providing equitable gains for all.

A. Trade-related policy developments

29. With the crisis, protectionist sentiments became widespread as manifested, for example, in "buy/lend/invest/hire" local conditions attached to government procurement and State aid. It was felt important to counter such sentiments to keep markets open. This motivated G20 members to pledge to resist protectionism and refrain from raising restrictive trade and investment measures until 2013. WTO and other institutions such as UNCTAD and OECD engaged in enhanced monitoring and surveillance of national trade and investment measures. Owing to these measures and WTO disciplines, the intensification of protectionism of the type and extent feared has not happened. Continued vigilance is required, as protectionism could resurface as imports increase and unemployment persists in the recovery, and there is a risk of an accumulation of protectionist measures.

30. Countries adopted both trade facilitating measures and trade restrictive measures; however, trade restrictive measures predominated "by a factor of 3 to 2".[12] The most common such measures are trade remedy investigations, increases in import tariffs, bans and licences. The countries most frequently affected by trade remedies were China, the European Union countries and the Republic of Korea. The products most frequently affected by trade restrictive measures are base metal (mainly iron and steel), machinery and equipment, glass and glassware, organic chemicals and plastics and textile and apparels, products that are subject to protection already and are relatively labour-intensive. Countries resorted more frequently to non-tariff measures than tariff measures. Measures taken by developed countries are largely bail-out measures and State aid. The increased recourse to non-tariff measures may be attributable to limited tariff flexibilities and increased trade connection via the global supply chains.

31. WTO estimates that trade restrictive measures introduced between October 2008 and May 2010 covered at most 1.4 per cent of world merchandise imports. Trade restrictive measures implemented since 2008 had little impact on aggregate world trade. Trade restrictive measures reduced the global exports by only 0.25 per cent[13] On average, a trade restrictive measure reduced affected trade by 2.5 per cent. The effect of individual trade restrictive measures on particular countries and products could be important.

32. Other trade restrictive measures have also attracted the attention of developing countries. Concerns exist the standards on that sanitary and phytosanitary measures and technical barriers to trade are used to restrict trade. Growing demand and scarcity of supply have made access to and use of natural resources a salient issue, with calls for the removal of export duties and quotas on such products, but they have been used by exporting countries to promote food security, terms of trade motivations, diversified production, downstream processing, and to generate revenue. With regard to services, the changes in visa regulations introduced in

[12] WTO/UNCTAD/OECD, "Report on G20 trade and investment measures (November 2009 to mid-May 2010)", June 2010.

[13] IMF estimate.

several countries have impacted, inter alia, the movement of information technology workers and contractual workers. Developing countries are concerned over green protectionism such as border tax adjustments to offset competitiveness differentials across countries with different regulatory regimes regarding carbon tax and greenhouse gas emissions trading.

B. Functioning of the multilateral trading system

33. The crisis underlined the need for rethinking the modus operandi of the multilateral trading system. Indeed, the Seventh WTO Ministerial Conference reviewed, inter alia, the operation and functioning of the multilateral trading system. Some elements proposed include revitalizing regular committees to improve monitoring of measures; improving oversight of regional trade agreements; and adopting an omnibus legal instrument to cover least developed countries' preferences. Some countries proposed to establish a deliberative process to review and improve the functioning, efficiency and transparency of WTO. Earlier in 2004, an independent panel set up by the WTO Director-General examined the functioning of WTO and came up with recommendations[14] including on negotiating processes; decision-making structures, variable geometry and the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) scheduling approach; transparency; the erosion of non-discrimination; and contractual right for funding technical assistance for least developed countries. The panel and subsequent discussions since then have highlighted a number of ideas and proposals.

34. It was noted, for instance, that a bold course correction is warranted regarding the reciprocity-focused market opening based on mercantilist logic. Such logic relies on export interests for negotiations and inherently understates the development interests of import-competing industries. Shifting towards an alternative development logic, based on the public good and the cooperative approach, and paying greater attention to collective interest and legitimate economic, societal and sustainability concerns, is needed. This would imply integrating effectively in WTO, development objectives provided in the WTO Agreement and Millennium Development Goals — e.g., higher standards of living, full employment, higher real income and positive efforts for developing countries — and the need for developing countries to use policy space. Increased involvement of parliaments can be encouraged to addressing the interests of their societies.

35. Some are of the view that the prolonged negotiations demonstrated less-than-optimal performance of WTO as a negotiating forum. Reconciling efficiency and equity in negotiations is fundamental. Various proposals have addressed altering consensus rule, such as by adopting a (weighted) voting system, depending on the types of decision, and "critical mass" approach, a practice whereby countries refrain from blocking consensus when a majority of members support agreement. Changing this could erode the legitimacy of the system, especially for weaker members. The consensus rule needs to be preserved, and any reform should address institutional arrangements to support the emergence of consensus.

[14] World Trade Organization, "The Future of the WTO: addressing institutional challenges in the new millennium", 2004.

36. Another suggestion is to seek agreement among a subset of members through plurilateral, critical-mass and "variable geometry" approaches. The major thrust is to allow "willing" countries to proceed with deeper liberalization. This may lead to a two-tier system of membership and imbalance in benefits, marginalizing weaker developing countries, and undermine the multilateral non-discrimination principle. Another proposal seeks to improve the methods for a broad-based agenda under a single undertaking. While single undertaking was conceived to facilitate intersectoral trade-offs, this has not materialized on issues of vital interest (e.g., agriculture and services), especially when an imbalance exists across sectors and issues. The impact of a single undertaking is yet to be fully understood. Continued recourse to broad-based negotiations has led to expanding the frontier of the multilateral trading system, and a consequent reduction in policy space. Inclusion of new issues such as Singapore issues may continue to be avoided unless substantial developmental benefits are demonstrated.

37. Limiting the scope of negotiations to selected core market access and rules-making has also been suggested. A key question would be whether the confined scope of the agenda could sufficiently cover the divergent interest of all members to establish meaningful reciprocity and balanced trade-offs.

38. Once the negotiations are concluded, according to some, attention should be given to stabilizing the system with sufficient time allocated for the implementation, review and build-up of capacities, particularly in developing countries to ensure that the expected benefits are realized. Efforts could also be devoted to strengthening regular policy monitoring and information-sharing and transparency processes, addressing meaningfully specific trade concerns and scaled-up binding technical assistance. The implementation of the agreements, addressing effectively members' difficulties, and the realization of development benefits and trade opportunities need to be ensured before launching negotiations. This implies that consideration should be given to linking capacity-building and funding support for the implementation of the agreements, as taken in trade-facilitation negotiations.

39. Another point with wide support highlights that attaining the universality of WTO membership is essential. The accession process has often led to deeper commitments by acceding countries than for original WTO members and reduced policy flexibilities that are important in implementing development strategies (e.g., in agriculture). This has led to a multitiered membership, subject to different levels of obligations. Since acceding countries are in a weaker bargaining position, improving the accession process is necessary, particularly for least developed countries, so that resulting commitments are consistent with their development levels. The effective implementation of the guidelines on the accession of least developed countries (2002) is critical.

40. Given the interdependence of economies, coherence with different segments of global governance is also generally viewed as vital. WTO has pursued coherence with the Bretton Woods institutions with which it shares similar institutional objectives, norms and mandates and based on a ministerial declaration by members.[15] The United Nations and its bodies, including UNCTAD, have an important role in global cooperation in trade, finance, investment, agriculture,

[15] Rorden Wilkinson, "The problematic of trade and development beyond the Doha Round," *Journal of International Trade and Diplomacy*, vol. 3, No. 1 (spring, 2009).

technology, climate change and sustainable development. UNCTAD serves as an important forum for policy dialogue and the clarification of key trade and development issues that could eventually be subjected to WTO negotiations. Greater coherence between WTO and the United Nations is pivotal in rebalancing the multilateral trading system in favour of development.

C. Doha Development Round

41. Launched in November 2001 and originally planned for conclusion by 1 January 2005, the Doha Development Round continues. Negotiations have focused on agriculture and non-agricultural market access, while progress in the Doha Development Round has been conditional upon agriculture. The Doha Development Round mandate placed the needs and interests of developing countries at its heart and prioritized development issues (e.g., special and differential treatment and implementation difficulties to be resolved by 2002). The weak development dimension in the WTO Agreements and implementation difficulties constrain developing countries from securing an equitable share in the growth in international trade. Further, imbalances and asymmetries arising from uniform rules as applied to countries with different levels of development and capacities inhibit the latter's ability to benefit from trade opportunities. The Seventh Session of the WTO Ministerial Conference reaffirmed Members' resolve to conclude the Doha Development Round in 2010.

42. Major barriers to the negotiations remain the lack of engagement and leadership to move from entrenched positions by recognizing the asymmetrical capacities and needs of developing countries. Negotiations have hinged on the question as to whether to proceed on the basis of modalities for agriculture and non-agricultural market access. Developing countries have been concerned over an erosion of the Doha Development Round towards a singular focus on market access, as more ambitious industrial market opening is sought in larger developing countries. Repeated attempts to divert attention from the original Doha mandate by setting new approaches and targets have been a matter of concern to developing countries, such as a quantitative benchmark or formula for the liberalization in services and skipping negotiations on the modalities for agriculture and non-agricultural market access.

43. The crises have overtaken global policy attention and highlighted what may be perceived as the relatively limited contribution of the Doha Development Round and the expected modest gains to pressing global needs. Recent estimates suggest a global welfare gain of $94 billion, with only $22 billion accruing to low- and middle-income countries.[16] The results of such modelling need to be interpreted with caution as they do not fully capture real economy factors, can create unrealistic expectations and may prejudge the negotiations.

44. Debate emerged on possible options for concluding the Doha Development Round including full-fledged agreement; a "Doha-light" package; and early harvest of a limited package, primarily for least developed countries. Further prolongation risks further loss of interest in the Doha Development Round, leaving a greater role

[16] David Laborde and others, mimeo, 22 January 2010; UNCTAD, "Coping with trade reforms: a developing-country perspective on the WTO Industrial Trade Negotiation", 2005.

in global economic governance for other forums such as the G20, regional and bilateral arrangements and increased trade litigation. There is a need to conduct negotiations on the basis of the existing Doha Development Round and progress made so far, with full transparency, inclusiveness and upholding the primacy of multilateral process as well as the centrality of development outcomes. Increasing substantially aid for trade with effective delivery can help developing countries to build trade-related infrastructures and competitive supply capacities, including at the sectoral level. Aid for trade remains concentrated, with the top 10 recipients accounting for 45 per cent of total aid for trade commitments while least developed countries received 25 per cent.

Agriculture and food security

45. Agriculture is central to the economies of developing countries and the Doha Development Round. The rural population ranges between 21-71 per cent in developing countries and agriculture is a major source of employment (55 per cent in developing countries and 74 per cent in least developed countries, as compared to 4 per cent in developed countries). The majority of developing countries are net-agricultural importers (54 per cent) and some of the net-agricultural exporters are food importers since they export cash crops such as coffee and are food insecure.[17] Despite their natural comparative advantage in agriculture, many developing countries had suffered from low productivity resulting from agricultural underinvestment, premature de-agrarianization and liberalization. Agricultural labour productivity in least developed countries was 46 per cent of that in other developing countries and below 1 per cent of that in developed countries. International financial institutions' structural adjustment plans had reduced public intervention in the sector (extension services, marketing boards and stabilization fund). Trade liberalization and reduced investment has generated a biased specialization in a few export cash crops. Import surges and price depression and volatility have become more frequent since the 1990s. The food crisis adversely affected food security, hunger and poverty. To reverse this trend, enhanced investment in sustainable agriculture is needed to improve productivity, competitiveness and a reliable supply of crops.

46. Despite its expected global gains, further liberalization could lead to greater vulnerability, particularly for net-food importers.[18] Measures to protect food security for developing countries are among the major outstanding issues in agriculture negotiations. Special products, allowing for shielding certain products from reduction commitments, and a special safeguard mechanism, allowing for temporarily raising tariffs to counter import surges or price suppression, can play a balancing role. Agricultural subsidies by developed countries suppress market prices with short-term positive effects for net-food importers but discourage production in the long term. Addressing cotton expeditiously, ambitiously and specifically is a key deliverable as it can have a major impact on development of cotton-producing least developed countries.[19] Without such treatment, agriculture negotiations would lead

[17] *The Least Developed Countries Report, 2008: Growth, Poverty and the Terms of Development Partnership* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.08.II.D.20); and ibid., *2009: The State and Development Governance* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.09.II.D.9.

[18] Kym Anderson and Will Martin, editors, *Agricultural Trade Reform and the Doha Development Agenda* (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 2005).

[19] UNCTAD Multi-stakeholder meeting on cotton, Geneva, 2 December 2008.

to very small changes in subsidies — the new ceiling level for the major trade-distorting support in the United States, for example, would be at $1.5 billion as compared to $0.14 billion if cotton is dealt with more ambitiously. Preference-dependent developing countries such as the African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) States are concerned over preference erosion.

Non-agricultural market access and productive capabilities

47. Over 90 per cent of world merchandise trade consists of non-agricultural products, and two thirds consists of manufactures. As developing countries seek to build productive capabilities, abrupt market openings that could cause deindustrialization are key concerns. Translating development imperatives into operational parameters of the principle of "less than full reciprocity" is essential. The issue arose as developing countries would make higher average cuts in bound tariffs than would developed countries under the non-agricultural market access tariff-cutting formula. This is because developing countries' average bound rates are higher than that of developed countries, and the tariff-cutting formula will reduce higher tariffs to a larger extent. Developing countries are also confronted with deeper liberalization, requested by developed countries, in sectors such as chemicals and electronics.

48. As tariffs become lower, the relative incidence of non-tariff barriers increased. Expansion of trade in global supply chain has increased the incidence of non-tariff barriers as producers encounter different regulations throughout the value chains. An UNCTAD survey confirms the prevalence of sanitary and phytosanitary technical barriers to trade measures.[20] Negotiations have addressed reducing and harmonizing sector-specific technical barriers to trade-related non-tariff barriers on electronics, chemicals, automotives and textiles and clothing, and establishing a mechanism that would facilitate the resolution of practical problems posed by non-tariff barriers. As developing countries are net importers in these sectors, the proposed elimination and harmonization of non-tariff barriers would imply upward regulatory harmonization, increasing adjustment costs for them. Proposals to address certain non-tariff barriers have been a cause for concern for developing countries, such as export taxes and "remanufactured" goods. Developing countries have used export taxes to promote value-added activities and increase revenue.

Progressive liberalization of services

49. Services constitute 50 per cent of GDP and 35 per cent of employment in developing countries. Infrastructure services — financial, transport, telecommunications, water and energy — are fundamental for development,[21] including in providing universal access to essential services for attaining the Millennium Development Goals on water, energy, health and education.

50. The General Agreement on Trade in Services requires simultaneous opening of the capital account for countries that have undertaken commitments under Modes 1 (cross-border supply of services) and 3 (commercial presence) for financial services. The ability of countries to deploy capital controls related to capital inflows would be restricted. The financial crisis led countries to take a cautious approach to the

[20] UNCTAD/DITC/TAB/2009/3

[21] Background note prepared for the second session of the Multi-year Expert Meeting on Services, Development and Trade: the Regulatory and Institutional Dimension (TD/B/C.I/MEM.3/5)

liberalization and regulation of financial services, and capital account management, for example, in opening cross-border financial services and in allowing foreign financial firms to offer new financial products. Unless justified by the prudential carve-out, some mitigation measures and proposed regulatory, for example, reform to restrict derivatives trading for a bank's own account, could have bearings on market-access commitments, including those undertaken under the Understanding on Commitments in Financial Services, which requires countries to permit the provision of new financial products and "stand still" on certain non-discriminatory measures.

51. In negotiations, substantial improvements in areas of export-interest to developing countries have been limited. While liberalization of Mode 4 (movement of natural persons) would generate large welfare gains — estimated at $156 billion — from opening the OECD labour market[22] by 3 per cent, Mode 4 remains restricted owing to concern over implications for labour markets. Many countries allow for entries of high-skill categories such as intracorporate transferees while developing countries have sought for an opening for contractual services suppliers and other lower-skill categories. Other areas of export-interest to developing countries are tourism and outsourcing. Outsourcing, contracting-out of business services provided through Mode 1 (cross-border supply), could bring trade opportunities and positive externalities such as foreign direct investment, human capital and knowledge transfer. WTO members are negotiating a most-favoured-nation waiver allowing grant of preferential market access for least developed countries' services.

Box 4
Migration, remittances and poverty

UNCTAD estimates suggest that remittances significantly reduce poverty in recipient countries, particularly for countries where remittances make up 5 per cent or more of GDP. On an average, for the given level of GDP, a 10 per cent rise in remittances leads to a reduction of 3.9 per cent in poverty and a reduction of around 3-3.5 per cent in the poverty gap in developing countries. To harness gains from migration, effective partnerships must be established between migrant-sending, transit and migrant-receiving countries. Coherence of policies at the national and international levels is important.

52. Many developing countries have an important interest in tourism.[23] The sector contributes to economic diversification and job creation through linkages with the rest of the economy. The worldwide contribution of tourism to GDP exceeds 5 per cent.[24] Tourism is the main source of foreign exchange for one third of

[22] Alan Winters and others, *Negotiating the Liberalization of the Temporary Movement of Natural Persons*, Commonwealth Secretariat, March 2002. See also, United Nations University/World Institute for Development Economic Research, *Efficiency Gains from the Elimination of Global Restrictions on Labour Mobility*, 2003.

[23] Note by the UNCTAD secretariat on the contribution to tourism and development (TD/B/C.I/8).

[24] World Tourism Organization, 2010.

developing countries and one half of least developed countries, accounting for 40 per cent of GDP. It contributed to graduation from the least developed countries status of Cape Verde and Maldives. Many WTO members seek liberal commitments addressing remaining sectoral and modal barriers such as in Modes 3 (commercial presence) and 4 and anti-competitive practices.

53. The financial crisis underscored the importance of regulatory autonomy in the financial services sector in responding to changing environment. Negotiations on multilateral disciplines on domestic regulations on qualification, licensing procedures and technical standards aim to ensure that such regulations do not become a disguised barrier to trade. Developing countries are concerned that stronger disciplines, such as "objectivity criteria"; the "necessity test" and burdensome transparency requirements could restrain their regulatory autonomy and increase administrative costs.

54. The General Agreement on Trade in Services recognizes the role of subsidies in relation to the development programmes while they are often used in infrastructural services, including access to essential services. Preserving adequate flexibilities in services subsidies for developmental purposes is important.

Early harvest package for least developed countries

55. Least developed countries are the poorest, weakest and most marginalized in the multilateral trading system. Addressing the trade and development needs of least developed countries is essential in realizing an equitable and development-oriented multilateral trading system. This would be an important contribution of the World Trade Organization to the Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries, to be held in Turkey in 2011. An early harvest package for least developed countries merits attention. Least developed countries have identified as priorities the following: duty-free, quota-free market access; cotton; services waiver; and measures to facilitate accession to WTO on fair and equitable terms.

56. Visible progress was made in expanding duty-free, quota-free access for least developed countries since 2000. The WTO Hong Kong Ministerial Conference decision's target for covering at least 97 per cent of tariff lines for duty-free, quota-free market access to least developed countries was achieved in all but one of the developed countries. It is important to realize the target and move towards 100 per cent coverage in all the developed countries. This is expected to create an additional export gain of $2 billion, and $5 billion if major middle-income countries offer duty-free, quota-free access.[25] Such initiatives were taken by China, India and recently, by Brazil. In the United States, there is debate on extending duty-free, quota-free benefits for all products from all least developed countries.[26] Limited progress has been made on instituting simplified and transparent rules of origin.

[25] Antoine Bouët and others, "The costs and benefits of duty-free, quota-free market access for poor countries: who and what matters", Center for Global Development Working Paper 206, March 2010.

[26] HR.4101: New Partnership for Trade Development Act of 2009.

Box 5
Key duty-free, quota-free issues

Product coverage and simplified rules of origin are two major issues. In the United States, there is significant scope for improvement by extending product coverage for Asian least developed countries. UNCTAD estimates that extending duty-free, quota-free access to 100 per cent of products would increase the value of preferences for Bangladesh from $1.4 million to $555 million. This would imply preference erosion for sub-Saharan Africa benefiting from African Growth and Opportunities Act preferences. Extending the product coverage to 100 per cent will increase Bangladesh's export value by $847 million, or 23 per cent of its initial export level, but Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritius and Swaziland will see a decrease in exports of between $3 million and $6 million. On the rules of origin, the European Union is considering reforming its preferential rules of origin. The utilization of Everything but Arms preferences by 41 least developed countries eligible only for Everything but Arms was 81 per cent and lower than the level registered by nine ACP least developed countries that export using the economic partnership agreement rules of origin (98 per cent). The lower utilization rate of Asian least developed countries is attributable to their apparel exports, which face relatively stringent rules of origin in the European Union, which requires the assembly of apparels from yarn, and not from fabric.

D. Regional trade agreements

57. The proliferation of regional trade agreements accelerates as countries seek to secure better market access and associated benefits such as technology transfer and foreign direct investment. Some 462 regional trade agreements were notified to WTO, covering over a half of world trade. Such agreements are eroding the multilateral non-discriminating principle and jeopardizing the multilateral trading system. The scope of the regional trade agreements, especially North-South trade agreements, became deeper and broader, with WTO-plus commitments. North-South regional trade agreements tend to focus on major trading nations or on converting non-reciprocal arrangements into WTO-compatible reciprocal ones. The extended scope and depth increases the costs of adjustment, and limits policy flexibility.[27]

58. The ACP-European Union negotiations for economic partnership agreements since 2002 represent the largest North-South regional trade agreements effort. By mid-2010, only one full economic partnership agreement (the Caribbean) and seven interim agreements were concluded, involving 36 ACP countries. The negotiations centred on the key issues of establishing a development-oriented partnership while complying with the World Trade Organization rule on liberalizing substantially all trade; whether to incorporate trade-related issues (e.g., competition); and ensuring

[27] H. Horn, P. Mavroidis, A. Sapir, "Beyond the WTO? An anatomy of EU and US preferential trade agreements", June 2009.

that economic partnership agreements contribute to ACP regional integration processes. ACP countries generally made liberalization commitments for 80 per cent of trade over 15 years. Some technical issues were contentious relating to developmental policy instruments, including infant industry, export taxes and third-party most favoured nation, which can impact South-South trade. Economic partnership agreements may lead to increased ACP exports of certain agricultural products, including meat, grapes, rice and citrus. However, a boost of ACP supply is unlikely as improvements in the rules of origin were limited, implying that ACP countries could not process raw food material from third countries.[28]

59. Despite an improved transparency mechanism for regional trade agreements in the World Trade Organization, the lack of a clear understanding on the key parameters of GATT article XXIV, and enforcement thereof, limit the ability of WTO to discipline regional trade agreements. The rules negotiations on regional trade agreements deserve greater attention in view of the challenges to the multilateral trading system posed by proliferating, incoherent agreements. A moratorium on forming new regional trade agreements until the Doha Development Round is concluded has been suggested. Developing countries need to conduct audits of the trade and development benefits of regional trade agreements before starting further negotiations.

60. South-South trade represents 50 per cent of the merchandise exports of developing countries. Asia accounts for 63 per cent of total South-South trade, and a third of traded products are high-skill manufacturing goods. In 2008, the proportion of intraregional trade agreement trade was the highest (25 per cent) in the Association of Southeast Asian Nations among such groupings, while African groupings generally recorded lower levels. South-South integration is yet to exploit its full potential. In Africa, there is a need for greater harmonization of groupings, achieving depth and effectiveness in individual schemes and expanding cooperation with developing countries from other regions.[29] Regional cooperative and institutional mechanisms addressing, for example, infrastructure (transportation networks, trade facilitation), regulatory and institutional capacity-building are even more important. The North-South Corridor programme in East Africa is a prime example. Aid for trade to promote South-South trade needs to be scaled up. Interregionally, a significant boost would arise from the third round of negotiations on the global system of trade preferences, to be concluded in 2010. In December 2009, 22 participants in the negotiations agreed on modalities composed of a linear cut of 20 per cent on applied duties for at least 70 per cent of dutiable tariff lines.

E. Intellectual property, trade and development

61. Protection of intellectual property, inter alia, encourages invention and innovation by creating incentives for investment and research and development. Low levels of protection of intellectual property historically enabled technological transfer and diffusion, allowing countries to develop through imitation,

[28] *Economic Partnership Agreements: Comprehensive Analysis of the Agricultural Provisions* (UNCTAD/DITC/TNCD/2009/3).

[29] UNCTAD, *Economic Development in Africa Report 2010: South-South Cooperation: Africa and the New Forms of Development Partnership* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.10.II.D.13).

reengineering and adaptation. This was the case with the publishing industry in the United States, the chemical industry in Switzerland and the generic pharmaceutical industries in India. Technology, innovation and intellectual property protection policies and standards adapted to local needs are central to industrial development strategies.

62. Multilateral disciplines on intellectual property as embodied in the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS Agreement) have enhanced the protection of intellectual property such as patents. The TRIPS Agreement has been criticized as reflecting more heavily the interests of intellectual property rights holders, who tend to reside in developed countries, than that of technology users. For example, developing countries disbursed $80 billion in 2008 for royalties and licences. This also indicates that the current intellectual property system has fallen short of meeting the TRIPS Agreement objectives of promoting technological innovation, and the transfer and dissemination of technology to the mutual advantage of users and producers in a manner conducive to social and economic welfare (articles 7 and 8).

63. The limitations imposed on measures addressing public health, in particular access to essential drugs, are yet another concern. The TRIPS Agreement was amended in 2005 to allow for compulsory licensing for countries without a pharmaceutical manufacturing capacity. Its effective implementation remains a concern as illustrated in a recent case on the European Union's detention of generic drugs in transit initiated by India and Brazil (2010). Simplifying those mechanisms needs to be encouraged.

64. Concerns have also arisen regarding facilitated access to clean technologies to further efforts on climate mitigation and adaptation. A proposed technology mechanism and compulsory licences for clean technologies could be explored to ensure access to clean technologies.

TRIPS and related issues

65. TRIPS have created incentives for the use of genetic resources and traditional knowledge in patents without fulfilling the obligations under the Convention on Biological Diversity, including prior informed consent and benefit-sharing. Such imbalances caused concern over "biopiracy", "misappropriation" and illegal transboundary movement. Examples include turmeric, the neem tree and ayahuasca. They have undermined the capacity of developing countries to raise resources to implement the biodiversity conservation commitments under the Convention on Biological Diversity and Millennium Development Goal 7 and reap benefits from their use. In WTO in 2008, over 110 countries proposed to amend the TRIPS Agreement to incorporate a requirement for patent applicants to disclose origin, legal source, and mutually agreed terms regarding any genetic resources or traditional knowledge used in the invention. The proposal was made in conjunction with proposals to set a multilateral register on geographical indications for wine and spirits and expand the higher level of protection to other products. There are parallel negotiations for a new protocol to the Convention on Biological Diversity on an International Regime Access and Benefit-sharing for genetic resources and associated traditional knowledge to clarify relations between providers and users and incorporate disclosure and verification mechanisms. The identification of options on those mechanisms contributes to the goals of the Convention on

Biological Diversity and Millennium Development Goal 7. In 2009, WIPO Members launched negotiations on an instrument on effective protection of genetic resources, traditional knowledge and folklore.

66. Some countries seek to establish a plurilateral agreement on enforcement rules, namely the "Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement", being negotiated currently outside WTO or WIPO to address the increased global trade in counterfeit goods, which have an estimated value of $250 billion. The proposed standards are broad in scope, encompassing counterfeit goods, potential generic medicines and online piracy, and extend TRIPS enforcement rules on counterfeit goods to other categories of intellectual property (e.g., patents) and means of delivery (e.g., digital). Developing countries have expressed concern, including in WTO, that the Anti-Counterfeiting Trade Agreement could create barriers to trade by expanding judicial and customs actions in favour of title holders, imposing ex-officio customs controls and creating incentives for intellectual property litigation. The development impact of the Agreement needs careful assessment.

WIPO Development Agenda

67. The WIPO Development Agenda emerged in 2004 out of concerns that the intellectual property standards in WIPO were built on a paradigm which considers intellectual property as a goal in itself and not an instrument for social and economic development. The agenda aimed at ensuring that development considerations form an integral part of the mandate of WIPO, including enhanced public interest flexibilities to facilitate access to essential products, especially pharmaceuticals and educational material. While the original proposal envisaged substantive reform in all aspects of intellectual property standards, in 2007 WIPO member States formally adopted 45 recommendations centred on technical assistance, norm-setting, flexibilities and public interest, technology transfer and access to knowledge, assessments and evaluation and institutional matters. In 2009, WIPO adopted a thematic project approach to respond to recommendations through technical assistance and research that has been considered insufficient by developing countries.

68. Developing countries are concerned over the tendency to privilege the interests of title holders in WIPO norm-setting. In response to the thematic approach of WIPO, developing countries have proposed for broad principles to guide the negotiations on norm-setting. Such principles would include: assessing costs and benefits for the developing countries, users and the effects on the public domain; taking into account levels of development in substantive obligations; providing preferences to instruments with lesser trade-restrictive effects such as compensation instead of exclusivity, and an effective mechanism for the transfer of technology.

V. Conclusion

69. Strong and sustained recovery is indispensable to place the economies onto an inclusive development path and achieve the Millennium Development Goals. Governments play a catalytic role in formulating proactive, comprehensive and calibrated longer-term development strategies for structural reform to build diversified productive capabilities, create jobs and strengthen environmental sustainability. Balancing the external and domestic sources of growth is necessary

for global rebalancing. The international trading system should support such efforts by providing adequate policy space. The asymmetries and imbalances within the multilateral trading system need to be corrected anchoring it in development logic. The interdependence of the global economy and the increased fragmentation of the international trading system imply that serious coherence in development policymaking is needed at the bilateral, regional and multilateral levels, as well as between trade, monetary and financial systems.